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MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT AND A REPORT ON MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS, RESOURCES, UTILIZATION, AND TRAINING, MARCH 1966.

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WASHINGTON, D.C.

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HIGHLIGHTS OF THE PRESIDENT'S REPORT INCLUDED (1) IN 1965 MORE THAN 100,000 PERSONS COMPLETED TRAINING UNDER THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT, (2) 3 OF EVERY 4 WERE PLACED IN JOBS WITHIN 90 DAYS OF COMPLETION OF THE COURSE, (3) MORE THAN 500,000 YOUNG MEN AND WOMEN WERE APPROVED FOR PARTICIPATION IN THE NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS, (4) APPROXIMATELY 200 AREA VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL SCHOOLS WERE APPROVED FOR CONSTRUCTION, AND (5) 85,000 FULL-TIME STUDENTS WERE RECEIVING FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO BEGIN OR CONTINUE VOCATIONAL TRAINING. THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR REPORT PROCEEDS FROM AN UNQUALIFIED COMMITMENT TO THE VIEW THAT FULL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY IS A PROPER, PRACTICABLE, AND FIRST-PRIORITY NATIONAL OBJECTIVE. MAJOR SECTIONS ARE (1) REVIEW OF CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS, (2) MANPOWER OUTLOOK, (3) HIDDEN COSTS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, (4) UNUSED MANPOWER RESOURCES AND THEIR DEVELOPMENT, (5) YOUNG WORKERS, AND (6) FARMWORKERS. THE NEED FOR STRENGTHENING TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR DEVELOPING AND UTILIZING PRESENTLY UNDERUTILIZED HUMAN RESOURCES IS EMPHASIZED. A STATISTICAL APPENDIX IS INCLUDED. FOR A SUMMARY OF THE REPORT SEE VT 003 706. THIS DOCUMENT IS AVAILABLE FOR $1.50 FROM THE SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS, U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON, D.C. 20402. (SL)

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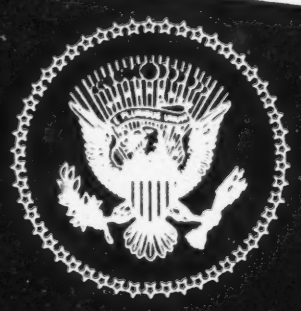
BY THE UNITED S MENT OF LABOR



TRANSMITTED TO THE CONGRESS MARCH 1966

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

AND

A REPORT ON MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS, RESOURCES, UTILIZATION, AND TRAINING

BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

TRANSMITTED TO THE CONGRESS MARCH 1966

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

THE WHITE HOUSE,
Washington, D.C., March 8, 1966.

The Honorable the PRESIDENT OF THE SENATE
The Honorable the SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

SIRS:

As required by section 107 of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended, I am sending to the Congress my annual Manpower Report, and the report of the Secretary of Labor on manpower requirements, resources, use, and training.

Sincerely,

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MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

MANPOWER REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

To the Congress of the United States:

I report on a year of progress and fulfillment.

I report on a year of challenge and change.

February 1966 marked the twentieth anniversary of this Nation's 1946 commitment to provide job opportunities for every person able, willing, and seeking to work.

February 1966 also brought the fifth anniversary of our longest and soundest period of peacetime prosperity. It marked the 60th consecutive month of visible proof that the 1946 commitment can be met.

A RECORD OF ACCOMPLISHMENT

Five years of sustained economic growth have effectively demonstrated that this Nation can:

1. Pursue an economic policy which creates millions of new jobs and reduces the burdens of unemployment and poverty.

2. Provide the necessary job opportunities to convert a flood of teenagers into a valuable national resource instead of an urgent social problem.

3. Set in motion manpower programs to transform the deprived, the disadvantaged, and the despairing into effective and self-respecting members of the Great Society.

Last year was one of harvest—and of new planting.

The fruits of sustained economic growth were realized in terms of increased employment and earnings for the American worker.

In 1965:

—The advance of 2.4 million jobs exceeded by one-third the increase of the labor force.

—Private nonfarm payrolls swelled by 42,000 added jobs each week.

—More than a million young Americans entered the work force, but there was work for them to do.

—Unemployment was reduced to its lowest rate in almost 9 years.

—The American factory worker's weekly earnings reached $110.92. Although the cost of the things he bought went up 2 percent, *there was 4½ percent more money in his pocket to buy them after paying his Federal taxes.*

Last year also saw the first combined effects of the new manpower, education, and poverty programs.

In 1965:

—More than 100,000 persons completed training under the Manpower Development and Training Act. Three out of every four were placed in jobs within 90 days after their course ended.

—More than 500,000 young men and women were approved for participation in the Neighborhood Youth Corps. The Corps helps those

in school to stay there, and helps dropouts to return to school or begin work.

—About 200 area vocational-technical schools were approved for construction. And 85,000 full-time students are receiving financial assistance to begin or continue vocational training.

—About 115,000 full-time college students in more than 1,100 colleges participated in work-study programs, which helped them to meet the costs of a college education.

—Work-experience programs provided jobs, basic education, training—and hope and dignity—for 65,000 public welfare recipients with almost 200,000 dependents.

—Almost 30,000 young men and women were enrolled in the Job Corps. For many of them, it was their first opportunity for realistic training to help them find and keep jobs.

Across the land, more and more men and women became productive members of a great and productive society. More and more boys and girls, in and out of school, received the work experience and training which helped to fit them for responsible places in society and to save them from lifetimes of chronic unemployment and degrading poverty.

A year ago 5.0 percent of our workers were unemployed.

Now only 3.7 percent are out of work.

A year ago many of our programs to provide better training and wider educational opportunities were only beginning.

Today they are supplying thousands of trained workers for our expanding economy.

But our very success in banishing the specter of mass unemployment from our land has brought new problems.

To sustain high employment, and continue our record of price stability, we must work harder than ever to match jobs and men.

Our success in reducing unemployment brings out more clearly than ever the fact that there is poverty in the midst of plenty. We cannot rest content:

—When employers seek skilled and experienced workers, while thousands cannot find work because they lack proper training and education.

—When factories in some areas are unable to fill orders because they lack workers, while chronic unemployment endures in other areas.

This year we must make a special effort to see that our human resources are not wasted.

We must accelerate the growth of public and private training programs and make them available to all.

We must bring jobs to workers and workers to jobs.

We must eliminate the discrimination which wastes our manpower resources.

Our goal is not just a job for every worker. Our goal is to place every worker in a job where he utilizes his full productive potential for his own and for society's benefit.

To achieve this goal, I have outlined below a new program to make full use of all our human resources.

Making the transition to an economy of sustained high employment is our immediate task. But we must not lose sight of the longer run.

We take pride in the growth of our economy, in the achievements of our scientists and engineers, and in the ability of our dynamic private enterprise economy to put new technology to practical use. But the requirements of new technology demand continuing adjustments in our work force. To make those adjustments as smoothly as possible, every worker needs a first-rate education and opportunities for continuing education and training.

A MANPOWER PROGRAM FOR FULL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY

Earlier Manpower Reports proceeded from a central concern with excessive unemployment: 6 percent at the time of the first report, and still 5 percent 2 years later.

Now, with unemployment below 4 percent and falling, the attention of the Congress and the Nation must focus on the manpower prospects and problems which emerge as the products of unprecedented prosperity.

An unemployment rate of 3.7 percent in February marks another milestone along the country's course toward full realization of its economic potential.

It was in November 1953—more than 12 years ago—that the unemployment rate was last that low. A year ago it was still 5 percent.

Attaining an unemployment rate of 3.7 percent is a triumph for our Nation's economy. It is a tribute to the public and private policies that led to this achievement.

Because it does reflect an economy operating closer to the full use of its manpower resources, our celebration must be tempered with caution. We must be alert to assure that the pace of our advance does not become too rapid, endangering the healthy stability and sound balance of our expansion.

Yet to conclude that we must proceed cautiously does not mean that we should slam on the brakes or throw the economy into reverse.

We expect our labor force to expand by 1.6 million workers this year.

Thus, we must provide about 4,500 new jobs each day—31,000 new jobs each week—134,000 new jobs each month.

Moreover, we cannot rest on past accomplishments when the unemployment rate for Negroes was still 7 percent in February. It was down from 9.2 percent a year earlier, and from nearly 13 percent in February 1961. But we cannot be satisfied when 1 out of every 14 Negro workers is without a job.

Nor can we be satisfied with a reduction of the unemployment rate for teenagers from 15½ percent in February 1961 and 14½ percent a year ago to 10.9 percent last month. So high a rate for young workers still blocks far too many young men and women from beginning productive and rewarding careers.

Our achievement is worthy of celebration, but our task remains unfinished. We can and will move with appropriate caution to sustain our economic advance into even higher levels of manpower achievement.

The 3.7 percent rate is an average. It conceals the fact that some 3 million workers still lack jobs. It also conceals the fact that there are now more jobs in some areas and occupations than there are people to fill them.

—In the Great Lakes region, there is already a tight supply of both skilled and unskilled labor.

—There are shortages of machinists for the metal working industry throughout the country, and shortages of building trades craftsmen in many areas.

—The new education programs could be stunted for a lack of teachers, and the Medicare program thwarted for a lack of medical and nursing personnel.

Yet, while these shortages exist:

—There are pockets of chronic unemployment in many cities, in Appalachia, in the Mississippi Delta, and in other regions of economic distress.

—There are teenagers who need jobs to stay in school or to help support their families. They need to know that society has a place for them and a need for their services.

—There are millions employed in occupations and skills that do not fully utilize their capabilities.

There is no overall labor shortage. But the unemployed and underemployed are not fully matched with the jobs available.

Specific shortages of labor can slow up the expansion of the economy. They can put pressure on costs and prices.

We are determined to do whatever is necessary to keep the economy expanding and avoid inflationary bottlenecks.

PLANS TO HEAD OFF MANPOWER SHORTAGES

The time to deal with manpower shortages is before they develop.

Effective manpower policies can reduce unemployment and at the same time head off manpower shortages.

I am therefore:

1. Directing the Commissioner of Labor Statistics to include in the monthly employment reports, starting in March, the fullest possible information on existing or threatening labor shortage situations.

2. Establishing an office of Assistant Secretary of Labor for Manpower, to assist the Secretary of Labor in the discharge of his manpower responsibilities under existing legislation and as Chairman of the President's Committee on Manpower.

3. Instructing the Secretary of Labor to focus Manpower Development and Training Act programs to meet prospective manpower shortage situations, especially through on-the-job training.

4. Requesting the President's Committee on Manpower to submit to me by July 1, 1966 a report on the recently announced coordination plan for all manpower activities of the Federal Government.

5. Asking the President's Advisory Committee on Labor-Management Policy to make appropriate recommendations to me on the manpower situation and related matters.

6. Referring the Report of the National Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress to the President's Manpower and Labor-Management Policy Committees for advice regarding the Commission's recommendations.

At my request, the Secretary of Labor yesterday submitted to the Congress legislation to improve the administration of the Federal-State Employment Service. This legislation emerged from the unanimous recommendations of a task force of distinguished businessmen, labor leaders, educators, and other manpower specialists.

I call at the same time on American management and American labor to take the affirmative action which is necessary to assure that inflation, resulting from the underuse of America's manpower potential, will not deprive us of the fruits of the most magnificent economic growth record in history.

A CALL FOR BOLD NEW APPROACHES

I am asking these agencies and groups to think boldly about new approaches.

What can we do to move the unemployed and the underemployed from places where jobs are scarce to places where workers are scarce? How do we move the jobs to the unemployed?

What can we do to encourage employers, who seek scarce skills, to redefine jobs in a way that employs more of the unskilled or semiskilled?

How can we enhance the mobility of workers in construction and similar occupations where demand shifts sharply among localities?

What can we do to mobilize the recently retired but still productive?

What can we do to make fuller use of our trained womanpower?

What can we do to break down artificial barriers against the entry of new workers into jobs that are hard to fill?

What can we do to insure that training and apprenticeship programs are open to all alike and are sufficiently extensive to meet our needs for skilled workers?

What can we do to help employers improve their own on-the-job training?

What can we do to encourage the employment of the physically and psychologically handicapped?

What can we do to facilitate the immigration of workers with scarce skills?

What more can we do to break down the barriers of discrimination that waste valuable manpower resources?

We already have many effective tools of an active manpower policy. In the year ahead we will expand and improve these programs.

Our most important new tool was provided by the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, strengthened by the amendments of 1963 and 1965. Our manpower training programs must respond both to needs of people and the needs of the economy.

Our experience under the act has proved that:

—People can be helped through education and training.

—The economy will benefit from the availability of additional workers.

Training will make useful and productive citizens of people previously considered beyond even the most elementary kinds of help.

—Mentally retarded individuals are being hired in increasing numbers by both Government and private employers, after successful training in various semiskilled, office, and service occupations.

—Vocational rehabilitation and manpower development programs are being applied more extensively to inmates of correctional institutions. During their period of confinement, they can prepare for jobs when they are released.

Federal manpower training programs are conducted in close cooperation with private industry. During the past year, we have significantly increased the number of on-the-job training programs approved under the Manpower Development and Training Act. In occupations ranging from tool and die makers to nurse aides and shipfitters, people are being trained *on the job*. The employment rate of over 85 percent testifies to the effectiveness of these programs.

In the next fiscal year, we will train and retrain 250,000 persons under these MDTA programs.

An expanding economy now presents both the opportunity and the necessity to upgrade the skills of the underemployed. This will meet the demand for workers. It will afford opportunity to people to move into higher skill and higher paying jobs—as high as their abilities permit.

The second major tool of our manpower policy is the Federal-State Employment Service. It must assume even greater responsibility not only in placing people, but in providing proper job and training information, guidance, and counseling to all who need it.

The administrative framework of the Service must be modernized.

The quality of those who provide its day-to-day services must be improved.

The methods of its operation need development.

More intensive research is needed to help guide our young people to occupations where they are most needed.

Vigorous manpower training and a revitalized job placement service are essential for a high-employment economy with price stability.

We will make the most of these tools in 1966.

THE SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF THE DISADVANTAGED

Certain groups in the Nation have not shared fully in the benefits of our unprecedented economic expansion. Much remains to be done to achieve full opportunity for these groups. As we expand *their* opportunities, we expand *our* manpower resources.

—**Unskilled workers,** with almost double the national rate of unemployment, lack the training to develop their potential skills.

—**Nonwhite workers,** who constitute 11 percent of our labor force, 20 percent of our unemployed, and nearly 25 percent of our long-term unemployed, suffer the double dis-

advantages of lower educational attainment and lingering discrimination.

—**Young Americans,** who will swell our work force for many years to come, still experience triple the national unemployment rate.

—**Farmworkers,** both operators and hired workers, remain the victims of high unemployment and underemployment.

—**Workers in surplus labor areas,** such as Appalachia, can benefit only from more vigorous economic development in their home areas or from migration to centers of employment growth.

No society can be truly great—and no economy can be truly prosperous—if high, long-duration unemployment for some exists side by side with low, short-term unemployment for others.

Special programs, suited to special groups, are needed to achieve full employment with price stability.

We must move again as we did last year to meet the impact of the more than 2 million young people—16 to 21 years of age—who will be looking for work next summer.

As we continue toward the Great Society, we will also bring increased employment opportunities to many groups.

—The rehabilitation and rebuilding of large blighted sections in our central cities will bring new vistas to those parts of America where opportunities are needed most.

—The work of the Rural Community Development Service will open up new opportunities for rural people, particularly in areas of greatest need. The new Community Development Districts, when pending legislation is passed, will bring greater planning resources to rural areas. The result will be higher levels of social and economic development.

—Our efforts under the 1965 Public Works and Economic Development Act will be stepped up.

—Joint Federal-State efforts under the Appalachian Regional Commission are also being increased. I have recommended quadrupling the expenditures for special programs to reach the more than 17 million people residing in that area. Such an increase means increased resources for highway construction, development of natural resources, vocational education, and health activities.

Our economy cannot be fully successful, or our society truly great, while differences in economic opportunity persist.

The programs and policies of this administration seek to reduce and ultimately to eliminate these differences. They are intolerable in a free and democratic society.

INVESTMENT IN HUMAN RESOURCES

In a prosperous economy, the root of most problems of unemployment and underemployment lies in deficiencies in education.

We must repair these deficiencies where we can.

We must prevent their recurrence in the next generation.

Fewer young people now drop out of school. But the number is still too high. If current trends continue, there will be over 8 million school dropouts between 1960 and 1970. The average American worker already has more than a high school education. The dropout will be at an ever-increasing disadvantage.

I am particularly concerned by the large numbers of young men who fail the Armed Forces qualification tests and must be rejected for military service. One-seventh of the young men examined cannot pass the equivalent of an elementary school examination.

Low educational attainment is a product, and in turn a producer, of poverty, unemployment, and discrimination.

This administration is determined to bring increased education and training opportunities to all Americans in the coming year. We intend to:

—Improve vocational rehabilitation training for over 200,000 mentally retarded, severely disabled, and handicapped individuals.

—Train or retrain 250,000 persons under manpower development programs.

—Have Community Action Programs in 900 areas, urban and rural, throughout the United States.

—Fund preschool classes for more than 200,000 children over the full academic year—and for another 500,000 youngsters during the summer. Almost 150,000 teachers, teacher aides, and neighborhood helpers will provide the needed service to these children.

—Operate 124 Job Corps urban and rural training centers, able to enroll approximately 45,000 men and women at any one time.

—Provide 125,000 part-time jobs during the entire school year and another 165,000 summer jobs in the Neighborhood Youth Corps to help poor young people stay in school. Another 64,000 positions will be available for boys and girls out of school.

—Offer services, under the Work-Experience Program, to over 100,000 public welfare recipients who support 300,000 dependents.

—Give basic education to 75,000 adults under grants to States for improving adult literacy.

—Conduct 350 different projects involving 4,500 VISTA volunteers to provide educational training and related services to the poor.

These specific programs are in addition to the enormous expansion in aid to our elementary, secondary, and higher education systems. For next year, I have proposed a total Federal investment in education of $10.2 billion—more than double the $4.75 billion effort when I became President. This will move us forward toward our goal of providing full education for every citizen to the limits of his capacity to absorb it.

Teaching methods and materials, no matter how excellent, are not enough. They must be kindled by ingenious, flexible, and responsive teachers and administrators. I have urged that Congress provide the funds for a new Teachers Corps—to be made up initially of 3,700 men and women. Combined into teams of experienced and intern teachers, they will be sharing their skills and understanding this fall with the poor children who need them most.

I am also calling for increased activities which will provide this Nation with more high-quality teachers for the handicapped and to meet the impact of school desegregation.

Manpower demands for professional personnel are also increasing in many other fields. New research and teaching activities must be oriented to meet those demands. Grants, loans, and other forms of aid are being made available to States, localities, and educational institutions. They include:

—A significant increase in National Science Foundation support of basic research and science education, critically important for the advanced training of scientists and engineers.

—University grants for research and training of advanced degree students in the space sciences through the National Aeronautics and Space Administration.

—Help through the Health Professions Educational Assistance Act and other legislation to increase, by 1975, the number of medical school graduates by 50 percent and the number of dental school graduates by 100 percent over 1960.

—Training personnel to deal with the critical problems of water pollution under the Water Pollution Control Administration.

—Training programs for developing skills of persons who are needed in community development activities.

—Continued assistance in the development of high-quality personnel for guidance and counseling—from elementary school to the univer-

sity—under provisions of the National Defense Education Act.

We must provide full and free access to a first-rate education for all our youth, with later opportunities to develop their talents to the fullest measure of their ability.

The commitment of the administration is to expand education and training opportunities for every citizen.

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE AND MINIMUM WAGE

Sound fiscal and monetary policies, effective training programs, an efficient employment service, and expanding educational services can steadily provide new hope for the unemployed.

Yet, even in a high-employment economy, the protection of unemployment compensation remains essential. The present period of prosperity is the appropriate time to modernize and strengthen our system of unemployment insurance.

I have recommended that legislation be enacted to improve our system's financing and administration,

—to prevent abuses,

—to provide more realistic benefits for more workers, for longer periods.

Special protection is needed for those in our labor force who are still employed at substandard earnings. The minimum wage for American workers has been an essential part of national policy for almost 30 years. But both the level of the minimum and the number of workers covered have recently fallen behind the pace set by the rest of the economy.

I recommend that the minimum wage be increased and that the coverage of the Fair Labor Standards Act be extended to additional workers.

We must provide all possible assistance to those who seek work, and decent living conditions for those who do work.

The programs and policies of this administration will be directed at these goals.

OUR OPPORTUNITY FOR THE FUTURE

This report has been of programs and policies, of legislation and appropriations. These are the means by which manpower policy is carried out.

The real basis of manpower policy is more fundamental.

It is the very essence of a free and democratic society.

It is our shared belief in the dignity of every human being.

This report has been of the gains of the past year.

To mark these gains is only to take new measure of the future. We are a people who draw confidence from the certainty of change. We are restless unless we can mold change to the highest human purpose.

With all that we have accomplished so far, with all that we are doing now, it is time to ask again: What of the future?

The future can be and ought to be a time of opportunity.

I see a future where the first two decades of people's lives are spent growing up, physically and mentally fit—training for citizenship and effective participation in their country's affairs—attaining the education for service, for a craft, for a profession—getting ready for their roles as workers, consumers, producers, and contributors to a free society.

I see a future in which education and training will be a permanent bridge between learning, employment, and human development. Even as we develop new uses of technology, we recognize that people grow stale unless there is a continuous renewal of their knowledge, enrichment of their skills, and development of their talents.

I see a future in which those seeking a station in life—whether it be the young dropout, the first offender, the older man with an outdated

skill, the military rejectee—will have an opportunity to fulfill their hopes and expectations.

A manpower policy must be based on belief in the value of the individual and in the promise of welcome change.

A manpower policy should lead us to a society in which every person has full opportunity to develop his—or her—earning powers, where no willing worker lacks a job, and where no useful talent lacks an opportunity.

REPORT ON MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS, RESOURCES, UTILIZATION, AND TRAINING

BY THE

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

W. Willard Wirtz, *Secretary*

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

Washington, D.C., March 7, 1966.

THE PRESIDENT

Dear Mr. President: I have the honor to present herewith a report pertaining to manpower requirements, resources, use, and training, as required by section 107 of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended.

Respectfully,

W. Willard Wirtz

Secretary of Labor.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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The report also benefited from the advice and consultation of the National Manpower Advisory Committee.

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INTRODUCTION

This is the fourth annual report by the Department of Labor on manpower requirements, resources, utilization, and training in the United States.

The report proceeds from unqualified commitment to the view that full employment opportunity is a proper, practicable, and first-priority national objective. This view recognizes employment and unemployment as not only economic but essentially human conditions. It counts underemployment as serious a matter—or almost as serious—as unemployment. It brings into question the definition of "employment" as the filling of whatever jobs the economic system wants filled, and inquires as well into the extent of use of individual human potentials.

In this context, the overall average unemployment figures—which show a remarkable 5-year reduction from about 7 percent in early 1961 to about 4 percent now—must be looked at coldly for their concealment of some less attractive facts:

- There are still 17 major areas in the continental United States in which unemployment is above 6 percent.
- There are still more than 650,000 people—one-fifth of the unemployed—who have been out of work for 15 weeks or longer.
- There are still 1¾ million "employed" who want to work full time but have only part-time work.
- One out of every eight teenagers who are looking for work (half of them only for part-time work) cannot find it.
- Negroes still constitute one-fifth of the unemployed—double their share of the labor force. There are 200,000 unemployed Negro teenagers highly concentrated in poor neighborhoods.
- Over 3 million household heads are working full time but still living in poverty.

Substantial explanation of the employment successes of the past 5 years, as well as much of the promise for the future, lies both in fiscal and monetary policies which affect employment through their impact on the economy, and in manpower development (or human resources development) programs.

Five years ago (when the jobless rate was at almost 7 percent) or even 2 years ago (when it was still at 5½ percent), the national purpose was necessarily and properly concentrated on strengthening and invigorating the economy so that it would produce the large number of additional jobs which were needed. Though there were then as now particular concentrations of unemployment, there was at the same time so general a job shortage that it had to be met on the broadest possible basis.

Decisions of historic proportions were accordingly reached to make the economy a better servant of human purpose through the adoption of appropriate fiscal and monetary policies. The great increase in employment and reduction in overall unemployment during 1965 discussed later in this report is only the most recent index of the effectiveness of those decisions. They benefited in special measure, furthermore, those groups (unskilled workers, younger workers, and nonwhite

workers) who had been bearing the heaviest burden of unemployment.

Simultaneously with these economic and fiscal measures, a series of revolutionary manpower programs was undertaken to upgrade workers' skills and improve the matching of workers to jobs. These programs were made possible by enactment of the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961, the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 and its subsequent amendments, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the Education Acts of 1964 and 1965, the Executive orders assuring equal employment opportunity and title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964.

These innovations reflected a recognition that large numbers of persons would benefit from enlightened fiscal policy only as they were freed from the effects of unenlightened racial prejudice, lack of education and training, and the more dynamic nature of industry than of people. The concept of an active manpower policy, geared to the individual and the locality, was recognized as a necessary component of overall national economic policy. It has become steadily clearer that economic growth and stability require increasing the employability of workers and reducing to a minimum the human dislocations of a changing economy.

In meeting the unemployment problems which remain, enlightened fiscal and monetary policies, on the one hand, and manpower, education, antipoverty, and civil rights programs, on the other, will be of coordinate importance. Continued expansion of the economy will be essential if use is to be made of the expanding work force. But there is little prospect of much further reduction in unemployment without serious inflationary consequences, except as efforts are directed specifically to the persistent concentrations of unemployment and unpreparedness. The manpower and related programs take on a new significance as the prospect of manpower shortages in certain areas and occupations develops.

Manpower policy, it is now evident, is as important in periods of high employment as when jobs are hard to find. It is an adjustable instrument which must be directed continually toward the changing manpower problems that attend changing economic conditions. In the present period of rising employment and tightening job markets, measures to improve manpower development and utilization become steadily more important in easing and preventing labor shortages, with their consequent production bottlenecks and inflationary pressures.

Several dimensions of program need thus confront us. To solve the interlocking problems of poverty, ignorance, unemployment, and underemployment will require not only measures to assure continued rapid economic growth but also efforts to strengthen education from the preschool to the postgraduate level. The most urgent task is to redress the flagrant deficiencies in educational opportunities for children in city slums and impoverished rural areas—drawing upon the added financial resources and program innovations made possible by recent legislation.

With rising educational requirements for employment a touchstone of the present-day job market, another need is for widely available free public education for 2 years beyond high school. There is increasing reason to believe that the first 20 years of most American boys' and girls' lives ought to go into education or training of one kind or another—perhaps into a combination of education and work in a good many cases, but with emphasis on preparation.

The needs of prosperity's unemployed—the young, nonwhite, and otherwise disadvantaged—demand more immediate remedies. And so does the Nation's need for trained workers in many occupations with a growing scarcity of qualified personnel. Training programs for jobless workers conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act should and will be reoriented to serve both these objectives, as outlined below. Employers can make a great contribution by enlarging their on-the-job training programs and opening these to all potentially qualified workers—without discrimination, artificial educational requirements, or other barriers to employment of the disadvantaged.

The War on Poverty has also provided a new arsenal of work-training and work-experience programs which need progressive strengthening. The first year's experience under the programs has made two things clear. With training, counseling, and other services appropriate to their particular needs, even greatly disadvantaged youth and adults can be helped to qualify for and obtain productive jobs. But substantial as are the present programs, they still fall short of meeting the total need of the groups they aim to serve. This is true not only of the War on Poverty programs

but also of those long established for disabled veterans, other handicapped people, American Indians, and prisoners and parolees—groups whose urgent need for training and other aid in qualifying for and finding jobs must never be lost sight of.

The disadvantaged are not one group but many—each with particular problems demanding particular remedies. And some groups have job market handicaps hardly touched as yet by public or private programs. Older workers, for example, have urgent need for action to end the discrimination they encounter in trying to find jobs and for expanded opportunities for work and training.[1]

In several areas of manpower policy and program, innovative action was recently begun or is recommended to meet compelling needs. These new dimensions of program action warrant a little more discussion.

STRENGTHENING OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

The Federal-State employment service system has a central and critical role in implementing the country's manpower policies, and has been called on to undertake large new responsibilities in connection with the manpower programs of the past several years. To carry out its enlarged responsibilities effectively, a strengthened Employment Service is needed, separated physically and structurally from the unemployment compensation system and under a new legislative mandate.

The findings of a Task Force of distinguished representatives of business, labor and the public appointed by the Secretary of Labor in September 1965 give strong support for this conclusion. As the Task Force recommended, the Employment Service must be open to all in need of manpower services but must also make particular efforts to reach those requiring specialized services to improve their employability. It must fulfill its potential as a coordinator of counseling and placement activities in the various Government training and work-training programs. It must develop better job market information and organize more rapid and efficient interarea and interstate clearance of job offers and work availability, perhaps through a computerized system. It must improve the standards for its personnel and promote training for them, so that testing, counseling, and placement of workers, especially the disadvantaged, can be carried out with maximum efficiency. It must also strive constantly to be an effective instrument of manpower policy, with regard for both local needs and national objectives. In short, the Employment Service must become a comprehensive manpower agency, serving both workers and employers at a higher level of efficiency.

Improvements in these directions which are possible under existing legislation will be initiated promptly, to the maximum extent permitted by budgetary limitations. Other recommended improvements must await legislative authorization by the Congress.

REORIENTATION OF MDTA TRAINING PROGRAMS

The training programs conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act have always had two objectives—to enable workers to qualify for current job opportunities and, in so doing, to help meet the economy's need for trained workers. But the present paradoxical manpower situation—characterized by emerging skill shortages when there are still large numbers of disadvantaged workers or potential workers unable to meet job requirements—has dictated a sharpening of this dual focus.

Accordingly, MDTA programs will now be divided between training for labor-shortage occupations and training tailored to the needs of the disadvantaged. In fiscal year 1967, a fourth of the trainees will be disadvantaged young people, and another two-fifths, disadvantaged adults; the remaining 35 percent will be selected for their ability to learn skills in short supply. For the disadvantaged, the approach will be to explore the interests and aptitudes of each trainee and to provide basic education, training, and supporting services on an individualized basis—so as to give each individual maximum help in overcoming his handicaps and becoming a productive member of the work force.

Sharply increased on-the-job training will be another feature of the MDTA program this year

[1] See *The Older American Worker—Age Discrimination in Employment* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, 1965). The key findings and recommendations of this report are discussed in the chapter on Unused Manpower Resources and Their Development.

and next. This type of training has proved both effective and economical, and it is a potent means of job development for disadvantaged workers. Half of all MDTA training will therefore be of this character in fiscal 1967, a much higher proportion than ever before.

PROGRAMS TO MEET SKILL SHORTAGES

As the economy moves toward full employment, the skill shortages now emerging can be expected to intensify. The Department of Labor has accordingly taken steps to anticipate the problems which will be created and to meet them as fully as possible.

Through an interagency committee organized by the Department, continuing surveys will be made of developing manpower-shortage situations. A series of conferences will be held also, under the auspices of this committee, with employers and employee representatives from industries facing labor shortages. The purpose of these conferences is to gather information on the extent of the shortages, the occupations and areas involved, and what industry is doing and Government agencies can and should do to increase training, improve manpower utilization, and otherwise aid in meeting manpower requirements.

A variety of approaches can be taken to relieve potential shortages. One is better organization of the job market, to keep to a minimum the job openings that remain vacant while workers with the needed skills are unemployed elsewhere in the country or, more briefly, even in the same local area. The Federal-State employment service system—the one nationwide mechanism for matching workers and jobs—holds the key to a more effective job market. With the recommended strengthening of its structure and operations, the Employment Service can be a powerful means of meeting manpower demands.

At the same time, worker mobility must be encouraged and assisted. Mobility demonstration projects now being conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act are exploring the manifold problems that restrict mobility—that may prevent unemployed workers from moving where their skills are needed—and the ways in which these problems can be overcome. Still in too early a stage to permit definitive conclusions, these projects should point the way to program action that will aid in achieving a more flexible work force, better attuned to shifting job market requirements.

Another essential approach is to break down bias against hiring particular groups—older people, women, people of limited education, and members of minority groups—who may have needed skills. Still another approach, in which it is hoped the labor-shortage conferences may furnish leadership, is rationalizing and redesigning jobs so that some of the functions can be performed by less skilled workers. Finally, there is need, as already suggested, for great expansion of training through both Government and private programs, with stress on the upgrading of workers in less skilled jobs. By this means, the demand for more skilled and specialized workers can be met quickly and entry jobs opened for jobless youth.

Undergirding these various approaches and programs must be the recognition that sound and imaginative manpower programs require equally sound and creative concepts of labor standards, to assure workers and trainees the necessary protection against low wages, injury, and substandard working conditions.

HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

The Human Resources Development Program—launched by the Department of Labor in late 1965, with the cooperation of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Office of Economic Opportunity—is the converse and complement to labor-shortage programs. It starts with the workers who need jobs rather than the jobs that need workers.

Human Resources Development is to be a community-based program which will identify and aid those individuals who have the most difficult problems of employability. The program will strive to reach jobless and disadvantaged workers and potential workers in localities of heavy unemployment, to find out about their particular problems and abilities, and to develop training projects and other services which will help them qualify for, obtain, and hold jobs.

The first experimental project began in three Chicago slum areas late in 1965. Others are already being initiated. Short as this experience is, it has already emphasized how much more needs

to be done if hard-to-employ individuals are to be brought into the mainstream of economic life.

A Selected Cities Task Force has also been set up by the Department of Labor to mobilize and coordinate training, counseling, placement, and other manpower services to disadvantaged youth and adults in major cities. Diversity of two kinds—in the needs of the individuals served and the multiplicity of agencies and programs involved in providing services—makes the need for coordination acute. Accordingly, members of the Labor Department Task Force have been assigned as "city coordinators" in 21 cities, and hopeful progress has been made in providing needed services in an efficient and coordinated manner.

The need for coordination transcends this program, however. And it is being actively sought among the concerned Federal programs, between levels of government, and above all within communities—for example, through Community Action Projects and other sectors of the War on Poverty. The aim must be to insure that all available resources, both private and governmental, are brought to bear effectively on the education and training, health and subsistence needs of underprivileged youth and adults and on ways of absorbing them into employment.

FARM MANPOWER PROBLEMS

Agricultural manpower problems require two basic approaches addressed, on the one hand, to the far-reaching adjustments farm people have to make because of the long-term drop in farm manpower requirements and the trend toward larger and fewer farms and, on the other, to the low wages, irregular work, and substandard working and living conditions which have been the lot of most hired farmworkers. A modicum of progress was made in both these directions during 1965.

For farm youth, the new educational legislation brought the beginning of sorely needed improvements in rural schools and of opportunities for vocational training in nonfarm occupations. The War on Poverty provides several varieties of aid to poor farmers, migratory and other hired farmworkers, and their families—guaranteed loans, literacy programs, day care for children, assistance in improving housing conditions, and opportunities for work training and work experience. In addition, MDTA training programs have prepared a moderate number of rural people for nonfarm occupations and a few for skilled farmwork.

Continued progress is needed in all these fields. But a much broader effort aimed at economic and job development in rural communities will be required to mitigate rural poverty and reduce underemployment among those who remain on small farms. The Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965 will make possible a great expansion of community development activities, building on the beginnings made under the Area Redevelopment Act. And the Community Development Districts proposed by the President can be a most important segment of this effort—with potential for increasing the contribution of rural city areas to the national economy and raising rural workers' earnings and level of living.

For hired farmworkers, dramatic progress was made during 1965 in improving job opportunities, wages, and working conditions, as employment of foreign workers on U.S. farms was sharply curtailed. The reduction in admissions of foreign farmworkers to the country resulted from the termination of Public Law 78, the 82d Congress, at the end of 1964 and from strict regulations aimed at protecting the wage levels and employment opportunities of American farmworkers which were issued by the Secretary of Labor under the Immigration and Nationality Act. Following intensified recruitment of domestic farmhands, improvements in their wages and working conditions, and also increased mechanization of some farm tasks formerly handled to a large extent by foreign labor, these workers were eliminated from most areas and crops. The problems that accompanied this transition were limited in scope and less severe than anticipated.

There is still great need, however, for labor standards and social insurance protection for hired farmworkers, as nearly comparable to the legislative protections covering most nonfarm workers as the special conditions of the agricultural job market permit. Consideration should be given especially to the possibility of extending coverage to farmworkers under minimum wage, unemployment insurance, and workmen's compensation laws and under laws protecting workers' rights to join unions and bargain collectively.

New approaches to structuring and rationalizing the job market for hired farmworkers should also be explored, with the aim of providing them

more regular work and building a skilled and dependable work force for American farmers.

MINIMUM-WAGE STANDARDS

The minimum-wage protections of the Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) extend today to about three-fifths of the country's private nonsupervisory workers—some 30 million out of 47 million. This is a smaller proportion than when the act became effective in 1938, despite an extension in the coverage of the act in 1961. The explanation lies in the rapid growth in employment in service industries, where very few workers are covered, and in retail trade, where coverage is limited also.

These coverage limitations in generally low-wage industries and the complete exclusion of agricultural workers from the act's minimum-wage provisions are among the reasons why millions of Americans work all year without earning enough to lift themselves and their families above the poverty line. Half of all women workers and more than half of all nonwhite workers are in jobs not covered by the act—which often pay wages below, and sometimes far below, its $1.25 hourly minimum. While State minimum-wage laws fill some of the gaps, most workers not covered by the Federal law are outside the coverage of State laws also.

In a prosperous country dedicated to the eradication of poverty, an extension of Federal minimum-wage protection to these low-wage workers is clearly called for. Past experience shows that minimum-wage legislation can be extended without inflationary consequences or adverse effects on employment, profits, or economic growth. It has proved an effective tool in helping those workers least able to bargain successfully for themselves to catch up with the general advance in wages. The Administration has accordingly recommended that the coverage of the FLSA minimum-wage provisions be extended to about 5 million additional workers in retail trade, hotels, restaurants, laundries, hospitals, nursing homes, and various other industries.[2]

[2] For further information on the scope of this proposed extension in coverage, see *Minimum Wage and Maximum Hours Standards under the Fair Labor Standards Act, An Evaluation and Appraisal* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, January 1966), pp. 11–13.

Eliminating substandard wages in these industries by including them under the Fair Labor Standards Act can also help to solve an extremely complex and difficult manpower problem. There is increasing evidence that some disadvantaged workers are unwilling to accept available unskilled, low-paid work because they know they would have been equipped for something better if they had had a fair chance earlier. Substantial progress toward solving this problem will require special training, remedial education, job development, and other individualized help for the workers involved. But the elimination of substandard wages from large sectors of employment is essential also to afford all workers a due share of economic opportunity.

EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY

As growing prosperity opens job opportunities and as discrimination diminishes, lack of education and training becomes an increasingly apparent problem for Negro workers. Progress in these areas, as well as in the ending of discrimination, must be accelerated if the great differential which still exists between Negroes and whites in rates of unemployment, occupational levels, and earnings is to be significantly reduced. The strengthening of education made possible by recent legislation and the training and work-training programs provided under the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Economic Opportunity Act have major roles to play in what should be a great nationwide effort.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, appointed after title VII of the Civil Rights Act became effective in July 1965, has moved to eliminate discriminatory practices by employers, unions, and employment offices, relying as much as possible on voluntary cooperation and conciliation. After March 1966, the Commission will require all covered employers to file a detailed compliance report.

More than 3,000 complaints had been filed by the end of 1965, most of them involving discrimination on the basis of race or color. In 30 percent of these cases, the Commission found that it had no jurisdiction. Investigations had been completed in over 300 cases, and 54 had been settled through the process of conciliation. These actions have implications extending far beyond the individuals

filing the complaints; they can mean the achievement of fair employment practices in an entire organization.

Nondiscrimination by Government contractors and subcontractors and in federally assisted construction has long been required, to foster equal employment opportunity. But affirmative action to insure that applicants are employed without regard to race, creed, color, or national origin is also needed. In accordance with a new Executive order of the President, an Office of Federal Contract Compliance has been set up in the Department of Labor to carry out this responsibility and to insure a consistent compliance policy throughout the Government. New approaches, including emphasis on the pre-award review of contractors' willingness and ability to comply, are being utilized. Appropriate sanctions will be involved when necessary. Contracting agencies have the primary responsibility to enforce the equal employment opportunity requirements of their contracts, with the Office of Contract Compliance assisting as needed.

But despite signal advances, it is clear that much further progress will be required to make equality in employment a reality for all Negro workers. The national failure to make full use of their abilities is the more tragic and ironic because of the emerging labor scarcities. In our democracy, we can afford to aim at no lesser goal than to insure that every citizen has opportunity to develop his abilities fully and to use them fully in his own and the Nation's interest.

MANPOWER RESEARCH

To guide and undergird effective action to solve the Nation's major manpower problems, a strengthened program of factfinding and manpower intelligence will be required. In pursuit of these objectives, the Department of Labor is concentrating its manpower research activities in three action-oriented directions: Improvement of operational programs, development of new perspectives and approaches, and early warning on emerging problems. In addition, to further the translation of manpower intelligence into policy and action, the Department's basic research efforts have been joined with the experimental and demonstration program conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act.

Two examples of recent research efforts which have generated innovative action are a study of the occupational training needs of young prison inmates and a study of jobseeking behavior of blue-collar workers. The Secretary of Labor has, as a result of the prison inmate study, called for a comprehensive program of vocational guidance, remedial education, skill training, and job referral for prison inmates who would benefit from such help. Many of the recommendations which flowed from the study of blue-collar workers are being incorporated experimentally in the operations of the Employment Service.

As the Department's research activities have expanded, it has become apparent that there is growing need for more practitioners and research specialists in the manpower field. To develop the needed personnel, the Department recently originated three programs designed to encourage professional training in this field. Grants are being made available for (1) the support of doctoral candidates writing their dissertations on subjects related to manpower problems; (2) the development of new and imaginative research designs and ideas by established scholars in the social behavioral sciences; and (3) continuing manpower research programs and research training activities at colleges and universities.

With the recent upswing in economic activity and employment, new problems of manpower development, utilization, and allocation have emerged. And the special problems of the hard-to-employ have, if anything, come into sharper relief. Knowledge and insights far beyond those yet provided by manpower research are required for effective action to deal with these urgent and complex problems. There is need, therefore, for greater effort by both government and private research organizations to develop more basic information, to sharpen tools of analysis, and to assure more effective application of research results in planning and implementing manpower policies and programs.

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REVIEW OF CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS

Recent Employment and Unemployment Trends

Nineteen sixty-five was a year of outstanding performance by the United States economy. The Nation's production of goods and services as measured by the real gross national product increased by 5½ percent—a rate nearly half again greater than the average of the past two decades. Total employment rose by a near record 1.8 million over the year, outstripping the 1.4 million growth in the labor force. (See table 1.) The expansion of the economy, largely attributable to the timely application of general economic policies, and the specific impact of manpower and antipoverty programs, contributed to reducing unemployment to 4½ percent for 1965 as a whole, the lowest annual rate since 1957.

Significantly, brisk growth in employment and output, and improvement in unemployment, continued throughout 1965 and into 1966, marking the beginning of a record-breaking 6th consecutive year of growth from the recession low point of 1961. (See chart 1.) By January 1966 the unemployment rate had been reduced to 4.0 percent—about equal to the lowest level since World War II, with the exception of the Korean war period—and, moreover, the economy clearly was still expanding rapidly.

TABLE 1. LABOR FORCE, EMPLOYMENT, AND UNEMPLOYMENT, 1964–65

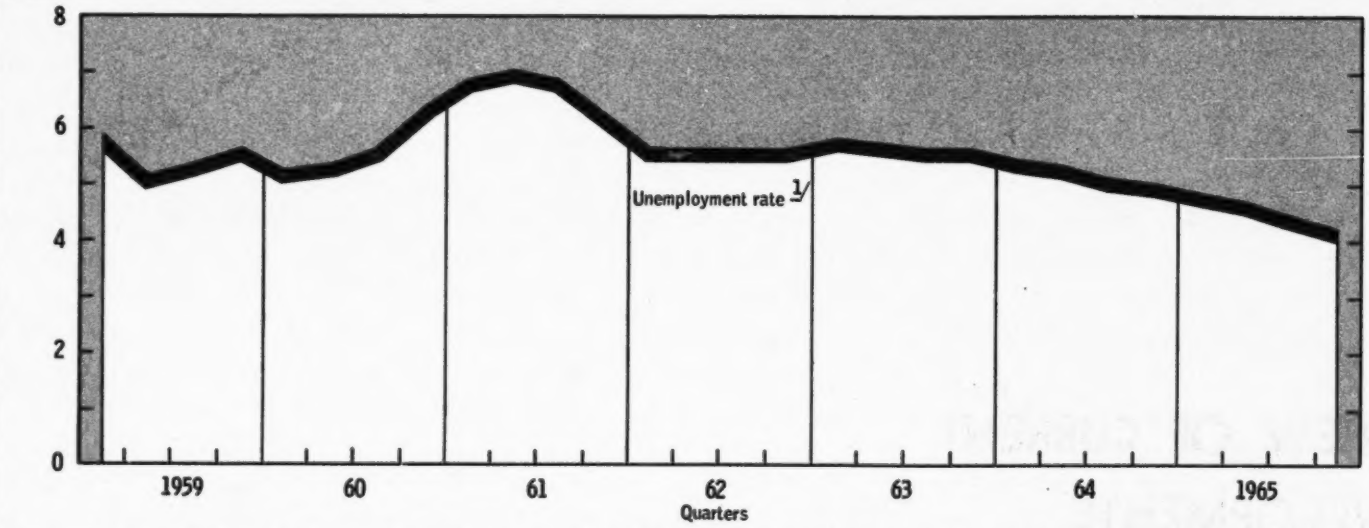
[Persons 14 years of age and over; numbers in thousands]

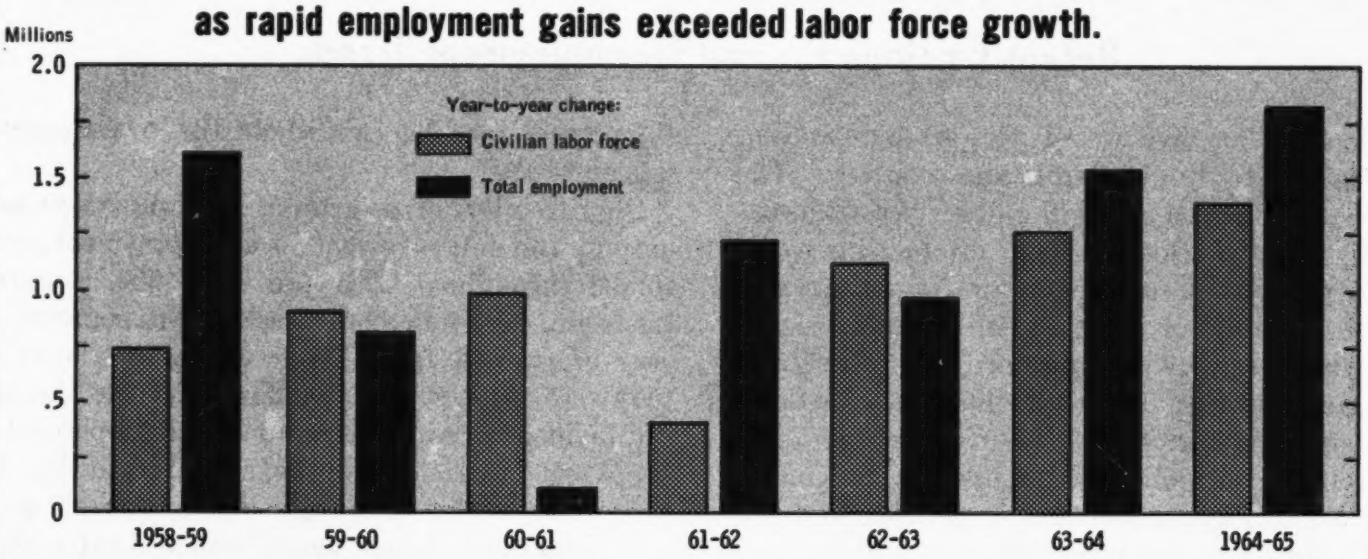
Employment status	1964	1965	Change, 1964–65	
			Number	Percent
Total labor force	76, 971	78, 357	1, 386	1. 8
Civilian labor force	74, 233	75, 635	1, 402	1. 9
Employment	70, 357	72, 179	1, 822	2. 6
Agriculture	4, 761	4, 585	−176	−3. 7
Nonagricultural industries	65, 596	67, 594	1, 998	3. 0
Unemployment	3, 876	3, 456	−420	−10. 8
Unemployment rate (percent)	5. 2	4. 6	----------	----------

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

Chart 1

Unemployment rate approached 4 percent at end of 1965... as rapid employment gains exceeded labor force growth.





1/ Seasonally adjusted quarterly.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

Fully as important as the size of the employment increase in 1965 was its industrial and occupational pattern. In the private sector of the economy generally and in the goods-producing and related industries particularly, the expansion of employment was outstanding. Manufacturing jobs exceeded World War II levels for the first time, with all hard goods industries and most soft goods industries registering employment advances. These job gains brought a substantial improvement in the employment situation of a number of disadvantaged groups, including Negroes and less skilled workers generally. The gains were also spread widely throughout the United States.

The sharpest acceleration in job growth in 1965 occurred among blue-collar workers—especially at the least skilled level—and among teenagers and nonwhites, all groups which have faced serious employment difficulties for at least a decade. Particularly impressive was the absorption into employment of a record 850,000 young adult workers 18 to 24 years of age, more than double their annual increase in the previous 4 years.

All of the additional employment in 1965 represented full-time jobs, the source too of most of the 1964 pickup. The number of nonfarm workers on

part time for economic reasons continued to decline and reached the lowest level on record since annual information became available in 1956.

The strong demand for additional manpower was also reflected in the substantial lengthening of the factory workweek, which rose four-tenths of an hour, or nearly 1 percent, in 1965 to 41.1 hours—the highest level since the end of the Second World War. Overtime hours among factory production workers also reached the highest level in the 10 years that these data have been collected, averaging 3.9 hours in durable goods industries and 3.1 in nondurable goods industries in 1965.

Very sizable inroads were made into long-term unemployment, which had been relatively intractable during earlier, but shorter, upturns in the business cycle. The number of workers unemployed 15 weeks or longer dropped by 200,000 in 1965, nearly twice the previous year's reduction. Much of the improvement was among persons who had been out of work 6 months or longer—their number fell by 130,000. The improvement was particularly marked among two of the groups especially vulnerable to long-term unemployment—the unskilled and older men.

These significant advances, however, leave unsolved many serious manpower problems. The 4-percent overall average unemployment rate in December reflected much higher rates for teenagers (13 percent) and nonwhite workers (7½ percent overall and more than 25 percent for teenagers). One out of eight of the Nation's major labor areas still had unemployment averaging over 6 percent, most of them still struggling with the problems of chronic high unemployment after years of industrial dislocation. Of the Nation's unemployed, 1 of 5 had been jobless for 15 weeks or longer; of those employed, many worked at jobs that did not yield income adequate for a decent living.

At the other end of the spectrum, the yearend unemployment rate for the most skilled and experienced workers was very low—2.3 percent for men 25 years of age and over. There was evidence too that potentially serious manpower shortages might develop in some local areas and occupations. The demands on material and manpower resources for Vietnam were beginning to add to the problems of maintaining stability of prices and costs while continuing to expand toward full employment.

Of basic significance, however, is the fact that after an unprecedentedly long and accelerating expansion, the economy entered 1966 with remarkably few new distortions in economic structure, and with some old ones reduced. An imaginative and socially oriented blending of fiscal and manpower policies had permitted a free economy to achieve a 4-percent unemployment rate without the imbalances which would undermine its continuation.

The economy has now entered a relatively unfamiliar environment as it approaches full employment. Public policies as well as private imagination and initiative will receive a stiff test as we attempt to avoid inflation, to avoid imbalances of a kind that would lead to recession later, and to upgrade workers to qualify for available jobs. The record of 1965 demonstrated that expansion in the economy could be maintained without the excesses that bring recession. The objective now is to demonstrate that every member of society can benefit fairly from continued expansion—that sufficient workers with adequate skills can be made available to fill the jobs needed to meet the Nation's domestic and international responsibilities, and that sufficient jobs will be available for those seeking them.

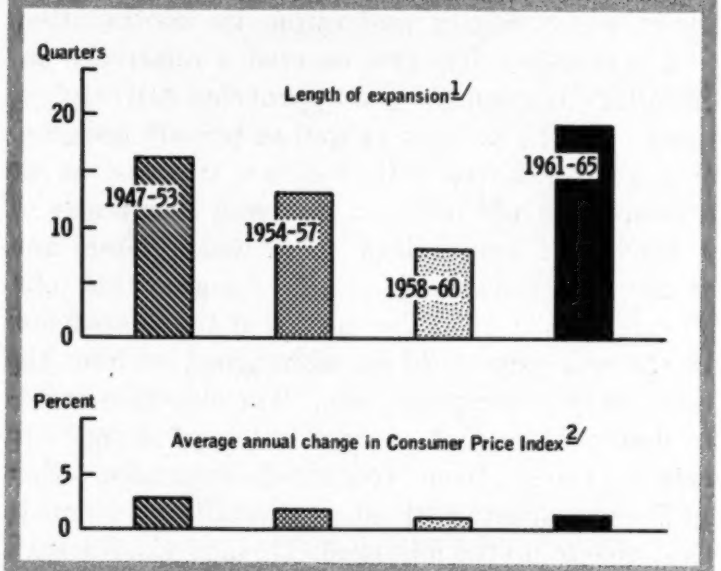
PERSPECTIVE ON RECENT GROWTH

The employment benefits of our current prosperity are in large part traceable to the duration and total growth of the economic expansion. The vigor, i.e., the average rate of growth, of the current economic upswing as a whole has not been exceptional when compared with the other postwar expansions. The characteristic that sets the current expansion apart from the others is not its rate of growth, but its longevity. As chart 2 shows (see top panel), the current upswing is already far longer than those of 1958–60 and 1954–57, and now—in the first quarter of 1966—is 1 full year longer than the 16-quarter advance scored during the Korean war period. In fact, in duration and total growth, the current expansion is already the outstanding peacetime performance of the U.S. economy in over half a century of record keeping.

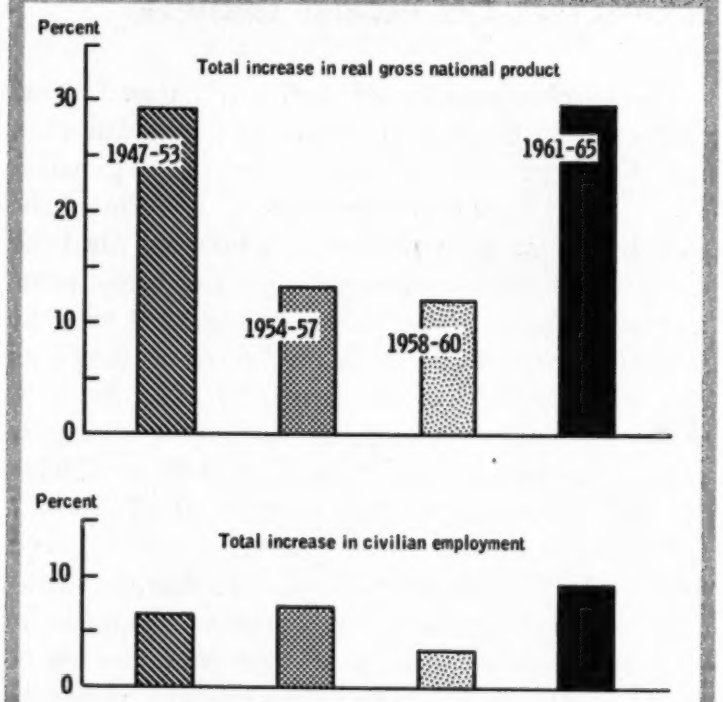
The gross national product was at an annual rate of $697 billion at the end of 1965, a gain of nearly $195 billion, or close to two-fifths, since the recession low point in early 1961. With only modest price rises, this represents a real gain in

Chart 2

Current expansion is marked by record duration and relative price stability.



Result has been largest postwar gain in output and employment.



1/ From cyclical trough to peak for expansions prior to 1961. The quarterly dates are respectively: III 1949-II 1953; II 1954-III 1957; and I 1958-I 1960. Current expansion measured from I 1961 through IV 1965, the latest quarter for which data are available.

2/ Compounded quarterly and expressed as annual rates.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor and U.S. Department of Commerce.

the total volume of output of 30 percent. The current advance in total volume of output is already much more than double the gains scored in each of the two mild upswings of the middle and late 1950's.

These 5 years of sustained and pervasive economic rise have had a profound cumulative impact on the employment picture. Employment rose from about 66¾ million in early 1961 to a new peak of almost 73 million at the close of 1965. Even though the civilian labor force increased by 4½ million over the same period, or by nearly a million a year on the average, the rapid growth in jobs brought unemployment down by a third. (See table 2.)

Another distinguishing feature of the current expansion is the acceleration that has occurred in the rate of gain in both employment and output as the expansion has continued. (See chart 3.) The employment gain was much greater in 1964 than in 1963 and still greater in 1965 than in 1964. The 1965 rate of employment expansion, at more than 2½ percent, was the largest since 1956.

Thus we have broken with the pattern that had seemed to become endemic in the 1950's, of expansions stopping well short of full recovery and at progressively higher unemployment rates.

KEY ROLE OF GOVERNMENT POLICY

The sustained expansion and the large gains in output and employment that accompanied it have not been a matter of happenstance; they reflect the aggressive application by the Federal Government of policies aimed at sustaining growth and achieving full utilization of the Nation's manpower resources and productive capacity. Many of the Government's wide range of fiscal, monetary, and manpower policies have broken new ground through the studied anticipation of impending problems and a purposeful and integrated implementation of programs to prevent them.

The Federal Government early in 1961 undertook a number of interrelated actions designed to bolster income, which helped to reverse the recession that had begun in early 1960, and started the economy on the road to expansion: Unemployment insurance benefits were temporarily extended beyond their usual duration; Social Security benefits were liberalized; other transfer payments were accelerated; and Federal purchasing and procure-

TABLE 2. RECOVERY AND EXPANSION, FIRST QUARTER 1961 TO FOURTH QUARTER 1965

[Seasonally adjusted quarterly averages]

Item	I, 1961	IV, 1965 [1]	Absolute change	Percent change	
				Total	Annual average [2]
Gross national product (billions):					
Current dollars	503.6	697.2	193.6	38.4	6.9
1958 dollars	482.7	624.4	141.7	29.4	5.4
Total civilian labor force (thousands)	71,653	76,175	4,522	6.3	1.3
Total employment (thousands)	66,783	72,972	6,189	9.3	1.9
Blue-collar occupations	23,394	26,835	3,441	14.7	2.9
White-collar occupations	29,428	32,378	2,950	10.0	2.0
Service workers	8,514	9,642	1,128	13.2	2.6
Nonfarm payroll employment (thousands)	53,465	61,409	7,944	14.9	2.9
Goods-related industries (including transportation and public utilities)	23,505	26,294	2,789	11.9	2.4
Service-related industries	29,960	35,116	5,156	17.2	3.4
Total unemployment (thousands)	4,870	3,203	−1,667	−34.2	−8.9
Rates (percent): Total	6.8	4.2	−2.6	−38.2	----
Adult men (25 years and over)	5.3	2.5	−2.8	−52.8	----
Adult women (25 years and over)	5.8	3.7	−2.1	−36.2	----
Teenagers	15.6	12.8	−2.8	−17.9	----
Nonwhites	12.4	7.8	−4.6	−37.1	----
Blue-collar occupations	9.7	4.6	−5.1	−52.6	----
White-collar occupations	3.2	2.2	−1.0	−31.2	----
Average weekly earnings in manufacturing	$89.18	$109.75	$20.57	23.1	4.4

[1] Preliminary payroll data.
[2] Compounded quarterly and expressed as annual rates.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

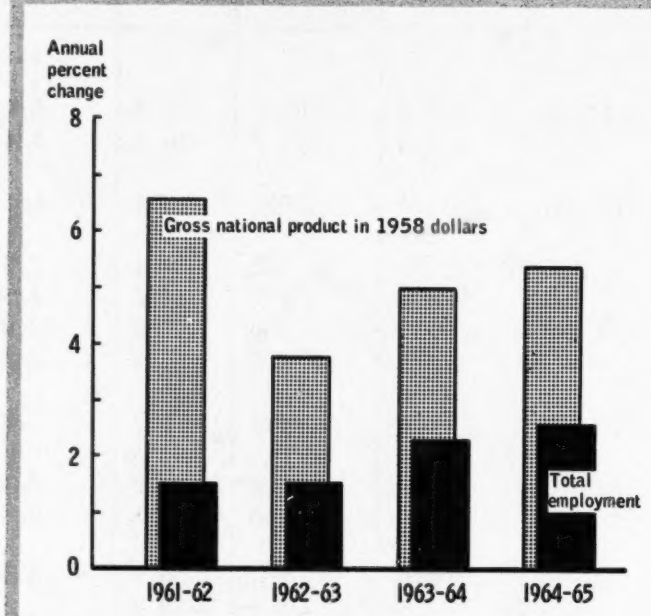
ment were speeded up, as were highway fund disbursements. These actions contributed significantly to the ensuing sharp gain in business activity and employment, but the pace of the gain slowed markedly as 1962 progressed. There was only a moderate increase in the number of jobs during the latter half of 1962, and the unemployment rate showed no improvement after falling to 5½ percent in the opening quarter. It became obvious that the economy was not growing fast enough to generate jobs for the rapidly expanding labor force, much less to reduce unemployment.

To remedy this, a number of fiscal and monetary actions were undertaken, culminating in a large personal and corporate tax cut which became effective early in 1964. This tax cut provided the stimulus to output and employment that has been a most significant factor in the continued dramatic expansion in the past 2 years. (See table 3.)

MANPOWER POLICY

At the same time that efforts were being made to expand demand through tax reductions, stimuli to business investment, and related policies, adoption of an active manpower policy led to complementary programs to upgrade workers' skills and improve the matching of workers and jobs. These innovational programs were recognized as a necessary supplement to fiscal and monetary policy in increasing employment and reducing unemployment and thereby contributing to the maximum economic growth consistent with price stability.

Chart 3 **Employment and output have increased steadily since initial recovery in 1961-62.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor and U.S. Department of Commerce.

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (MDTA), the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, and other legislation resting on the same principle have already had a substantial effect in improving the employability of workers and providing trained manpower to support further growth.

Their effect was impressively evident in 1965. While the expansion of the economy, in large measure attributable to Federal fiscal and monetary policies, provided most of the additional jobs in 1965, the reduction of unemployment also reflects to a significant degree the impact of educational and training programs. In total, over 300,000 persons were enrolled at the end of 1965 in programs established under the Economic Opportunity Act. Moreover, included among the unemployed in December were more than 60,000 persons receiving training for future jobs under the Manpower Development and Training Act.

The Great Society programs have been oriented largely toward youth. At the end of 1965 more than 150,000 boys and girls 16 to 21 years of age were participating in the Neighborhood Youth Corps, which provides useful part-time work for those in school and part- or full-time employment for those not in school or otherwise occupied. An-

TABLE 3. ECONOMIC GROWTH BEFORE AND AFTER 1964 TAX CUT

[Seasonally adjusted]

Item	Fourth quarter			Absolute change		Average annual percent change [1]	
	1961	1963	1965	IV, 1961–63	IV, 1963–65	IV, 1961–63	IV, 1963–65
Civilian labor force (millions)	71.6	73.4	76.2	1.8	2.8	1.3	1.9
Employment	67.1	69.3	73.0	2.1	3.7	1.6	2.6
Unemployment	4.4	4.1	3.2	−.3	−.9	−3.5	−13.1
Unemployment rate (percent)	6.2	5.6	4.2	−.6	−1.4		
Gross national product, billions of current dollars	537.7	603.6	697.2	65.9	93.6	5.8	7.3
Personal consumption expenditures	343.1	379.5	441.0	36.4	61.5	5.1	7.6
Business fixed investment	48.6	56.5	73.0	7.9	16.5	7.6	13.0
All other gross national product	146.0	167.6	183.2	21.6	15.6	7.0	4.5
Gross national product, billions of 1958 dollars	511.9	560.0	624.4	48.1	64.4	4.5	5.5

[1] Compounded quarterly and expressed as annual rates.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

other 17,000 boys and girls, almost all of whom were previously unemployed, were participating in programs in the Job Corps. And 100,000 college students were profiting by the work-study program which provides part-time paid work to students who might otherwise be unable to enter college or continue their studies.

MDTA and poverty programs have already had a noticeable impact on unemployment among youth. The number of unemployed persons aged 16 to 21 (those eligible for youth assistance programs) was 175,000 less in December 1965 than in December 1964, even though their numbers in the labor force were greater by 650,000. It is estimated that at least 90,000 young persons in Economic Opportunity programs and on-the-job training programs under MDTA would otherwise have been unemployed.

But to interpret the influence of these programs in terms of a single year is to understate their impact upon unemployment, for by helping young people to complete their schooling and by training the unemployed—both young people and adults—to qualify for jobs and to hold them, these programs are fitting people for employment on a long-term basis.

Nature of Employment Expansion, 1964–65

INDUSTRY EMPLOYMENT

The widespread extension of job gains to nearly all goods-producing and related industries as well as the service-producing industries was one of the most important aspects of the expansion in 1965. (See charts 4 and 5.) The expansion in goods-producing and related industries was in dramatic contrast to their lack of growth in the latter years of the 1950's, and their slow growth even in the early stages of the recovery in the 1960's.

Continued expansion in 1965 brought employment to record levels in construction, manufacturing, trade, finance, service, and State and local government; i.e., all of the major nonfarm industries except mining, transportation, and Federal Government. Even these exceptions were mitigated by the fact that the long-term decline in mining employment leveled off, and transportation employment showed a significant increase after many years of little or no growth.

Goods-Producing and Related Industries

It has taken 5 years of steady recovery and expansion for employment in the goods sector to regain losses sustained between 1957 and 1961 and slightly surpass previous peaks. Employment in goods and related industries in 1965—although 6 percent higher than in 1960—was still only half a million, or 2 percent, above the previous high a dozen years earlier, in 1953.

The goods-producing industries—mining, construction, manufacturing, and the closely related transportation and public utilities industries—added close to a million jobs in 1965, over two-fifths of the total rise in nonfarm payroll jobs. (See table 4.) This increase represented a continuation of the resurgence in employment which began in these industries early in 1964.

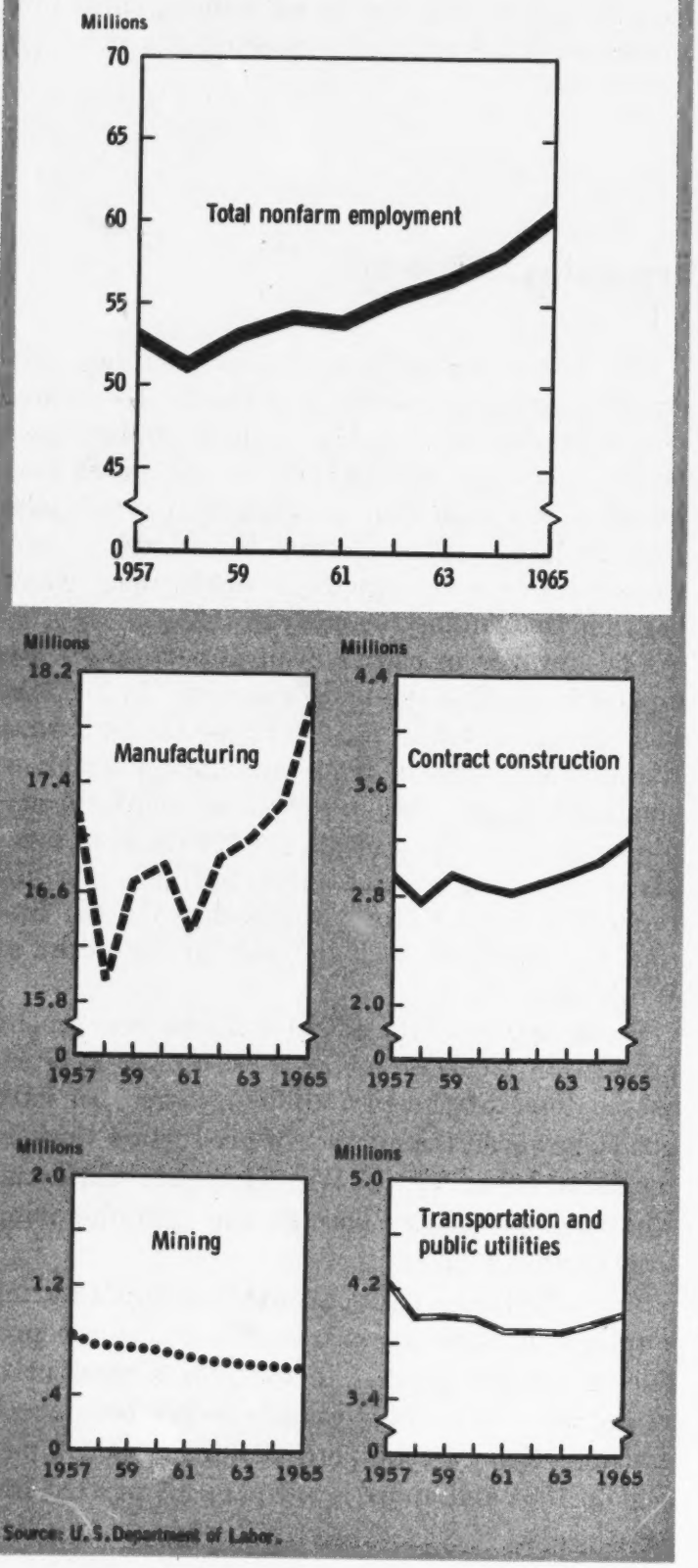
The upsurge in employment opportunities was especially marked in manufacturing. In 1965 the increase amounted to 725,000 jobs—almost 3 times the number added in 1964—accounting for about one-third of the year-to-year total nonfarm employment gain. As a result, the 1965 level of manufacturing employment—18.0 million—was the highest level in history, surpassing for the first time the previous peak in 1943, in the midst of World War II.

Some 600,000 of the additional jobs were among production workers, an increase almost as great as the total of the preceding 4 years. In hard goods, however, the number of production workers remained below World War II highs; additional white-collar workers boosted the manufacturing total to its new peak.

As in the past 5 years, growth in manufacturing employment was concentrated in industries producing durable goods. In fact, for 3 consecutive years, growth in these industries has been accelerating—rising by 1.4 percent during 1963, 2 percent in 1964 and an extraordinary 5.8 percent last year.

Chart 4

Recent job growth has been spurred by the goods-producing and related industries, especially manufacturing and construction.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

The 1965 gains in durable manufacturing employment were noteworthy not only because they were substantially larger than in 1964, but also because they were more widely dispersed. During 1964, 90 percent of the increase in durable manufacturing was concentrated in three industries—primary metals, fabricated metals, and machinery. Employment in these industries expanded further in 1965, and was augmented by an upsurge in the electrical equipment and transportation equipment industries as jobs responded to strong consumer demand for durable commodities, especially automobiles. Combined, these 5 industries added 500,000 new jobs to their payrolls in 1965—3 times as many as they did from 1963 to 1964.

The past year's record output and sales of automobiles and automotive products provided a powerful stimulus for job growth. About 850,000 persons were employed in the motor vehicles and equipment industry—close to 100,000 or 13 percent more than in 1964. This year-to-year gain in employment was the largest since 1954–55, when employment was recovering from a recession.

Employment in Defense-Related Industries

Civilian demand provided the preponderant stimulus for the employment expansion in 1965, but the stepped-up pace of activity in Vietnam was also a factor in boosting employment toward the end of the year. Employment rose sharply in the latter half of 1965 in five major defense industries—aircraft and parts, ship and boat building and repair, communications equipment, electronic components, and ordnance and accessories.[1] (See chart 6.) In December 1965, their employment stood at an all-time high of 1,860,000—about 10 percent higher than a year earlier. This rate of growth was about twice as great as for total manufacturing.

Other Goods-Producing Industries

Employment in industries producing nondurable goods also showed increased growth in 1965, although the rise of 150,000 was less dramatic and

[1] Each of these industries (whose employment together accounts for about 10 percent of the manufacturing total) is estimated to have at least one-half of its workers engaged in defense and related production, and two of them (ordnance and aircraft) are about 90 percent defense-oriented, although separate estimates are not available for defense and nondefense jobs.

less widespread than in durable manufacturing. One-half of the increase was accounted for by just two industries—apparel and related products, and rubber and plastic products.

With investment in plant and equipment setting new records, employment in contract construction expanded at an accelerated rate, increasing by 150,000 jobs in 1965. This rise was the third consecutive one to exceed the previous year's—an especially welcome circumstance because, like the resurgence in manufacturing employment, it seems to represent a new period of growth after several years of relative stagnation.

The renewal of employment opportunities in the goods-producing industries also spread to transportation and public utilities. Although the rise in employment in these industries amounted to only 2 percent in 1965, it followed an increase in 1964—a marked departure from the characteristic pattern of little or no growth since the mid-1950's.

Service-Producing Industries

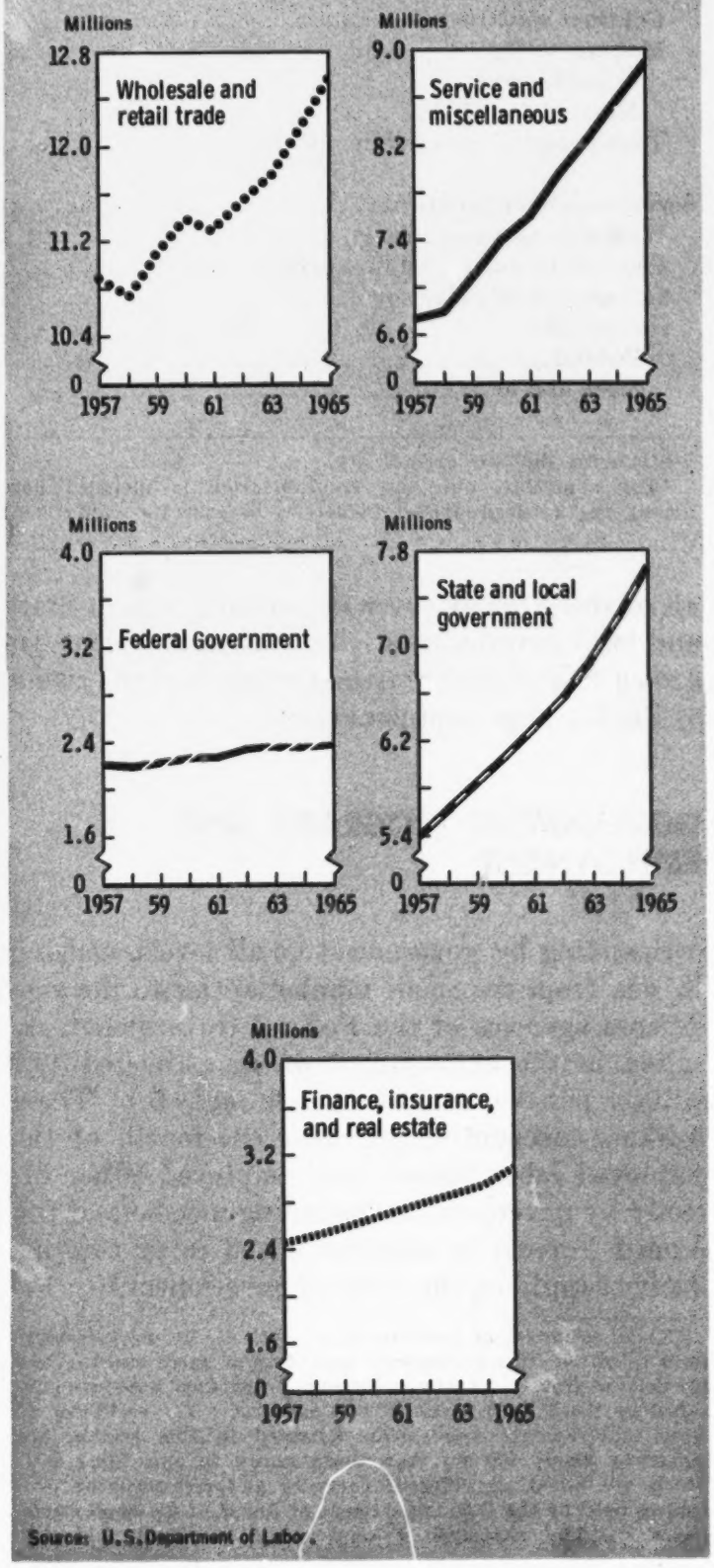
While employment increases in the goods-producing sector were particularly significant in 1964 and 1965, the service and service-related industries continued, as throughout the postwar period, to provide the bulk of the job expansion. Overall, these industries—services; trade; finance, insurance, and real estate; and government—accounted for 60 percent of the growth in nonagricultural payroll employment between 1964 and 1965.

Service sector employment soared by 1.3 million in 1965 to an alltime record. Moreover, this increase represents impressive gains over other years of notable achievement. Between 1960 and 1965 employment in the service industries increased by an average of 950,000 jobs each year, compared with 650,000 in 1947–60. Over the postwar period as a whole they accounted for 80 percent of the job increase.

Among individual service industries, however, 1965 developments were somewhat mixed. In the private sector, employment advanced relatively faster than in 1964 only in wholesale and retail trade. The group which includes personal, business, professional, and recreational services rose at a slightly slower pace than in 1964, as did finance, insurance, and real estate.

In the public sector, employment expanded substantially. As in most recent years, practically

Chart 5 **Employment in the service-related sector—except Federal Government—continued its sharp rise.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

TABLE 4. NONFARM PAYROLL EMPLOYMENT BY INDUSTRY DIVISION, 1964–65

[Numbers in thousands]

Industry division	1964	1965 [1]	Change, 1964–65 [1]	
			Number	Percent
Total	58, 156	60, 432	2, 276	3. 9
Goods-related industries [2]	24, 895	25, 854	959	3. 9
Mining	633	628	−5	−. 8
Contract construction	3, 056	3, 211	155	5. 1
Manufacturing	17, 259	17, 984	725	4. 2
Durable goods	9, 813	10, 379	566	5. 8
Nondurable goods	7, 446	7, 604	158	2. 1
Transportation and public utilities	3, 947	4, 031	84	2. 1
Service-related industries	33, 260	34, 577	1, 317	4. 0
Wholesale and retail trade	12, 132	12, 585	453	3. 7
Finance, insurance, and real estate	2, 964	3, 043	79	2. 7
Service and miscellaneous	8, 569	8, 903	334	3. 9
Government	9, 595	10, 046	451	4. 7
Federal	2, 348	2, 379	31	1. 3
State and local	7, 248	7, 667	419	5. 8

[1] Data for 1965 are preliminary.

[2] For analytical purposes, transportation is included here among the goods-producing industries because its employment has tended to respond to economic changes in a manner similar to the goods-producing industries.

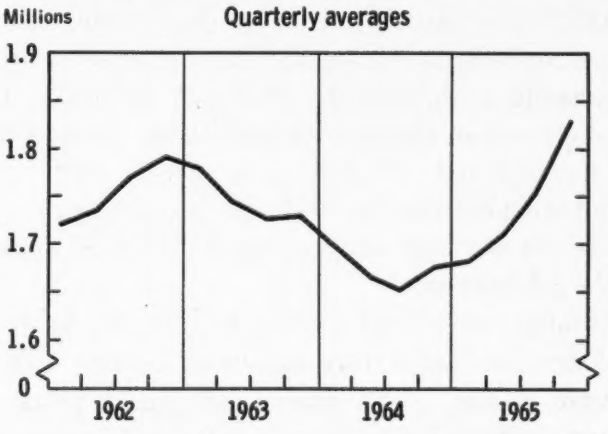
NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

all of this growth (over 90 percent) was in State and local governments. Federal employment has grown only slightly during the past 5 years, rising by less than 1 percent per annum.

GOVERNMENT PROGRAMS AND EMPLOYMENT

Spending by government at all levels, varying in size from the small municipalities to the vast defense agencies of the Federal Government, resulted in the employment of an estimated 19.7 million persons in 1965. (See table 5.) These workers—accounting for over one-fourth of the employed labor force—were employed either directly by governments (including members of the Armed Forces) or were employed in private industry supplying the needs of government.[2]

Chart 6 **Employment in heavily defense-related industries increased sharply in last half of 1965. 1/**



1/ For explanation see adjoining text.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

[2] These estimates of government and private industry employment resulting from government purchases of goods and services are derived from the national income and product accounts published by the U.S. Department of Commerce. The estimates of direct government employment indicated in this section are higher by about 400,000 than those shown in app. table C–1, which are based on different concepts and measurement procedures used by the U.S. Department of Labor in its employment statistics. The estimates of employment in private industry resulting from government purchases are based on the input-output employment table published in the July 1965 issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*.

Table 5. Employment Resulting From Government Purchases of Goods and Services, and Employment in Government Enterprises, 1962–65

[Millions]

Level of government	Total	Public and private employment resulting from government purchases of goods and services [1]					Employment in government enterprises [2]
		Total	Employment in private industry	General government personnel			
				Total	Civilian	Military	
All Levels							
1962	18.6	17.5	6.5	11.1	8.3	2.8	1.1
1963	19.0	17.9	6.6	11.3	8.6	2.7	1.1
1964	19.3	18.1	6.5	11.6	8.9	2.7	1.2
1965 [3]	19.7	18.5	6.5	12.0	9.3	2.7	1.2
Federal Government							
1962	9.2	8.5	3.9	4.6	1.8	2.8	.7
1963	9.2	8.4	3.9	4.5	1.8	2.7	.7
1964	9.0	8.3	3.7	4.5	1.8	2.7	.7
1965 [3]	8.9	8.1	3.6	4.6	1.8	2.7	.8
Defense and Atomic Energy Programs							
1962	7.0	6.9	3.1	3.8	1.0	2.8	.1
1963	6.8	6.7	2.9	3.8	1.0	2.7	.1
1964	6.6	6.4	2.7	3.8	1.0	2.7	.1
1965	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	2.7	(4)
Nondefense Programs, Including Space							
1962	2.1	1.6	.8	.8	.8	----------	.6
1963	2.3	1.7	.9	.8	.8	----------	.6
1964	2.4	1.8	1.1	.8	.8	----------	.6
1965	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	----------	(4)
State and Local Government							
1962	9.4	9.1	2.6	6.5	6.5	----------	.4
1963	9.8	9.4	2.7	6.7	6.7	----------	.4
1964	10.3	9.8	2.8	7.0	7.0	----------	.4
1965 [3]	10.8	10.4	2.9	7.4	7.4	----------	.4

[1] Derived from the national income and product accounts.

[2] Includes government-operated activities selling products and services to the public, such as the postal service, local water departments, and publicly owned power stations.

[3] Preliminary.

[4] Not available.

NOTE: Total government personnel, not shown separately, is the sum of general government personnel and employment in government enterprises.

Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Commerce.

While most of the jobs resulting from government spending involve direct work for governments, fully one-third—6½ million jobs in all—are filled by workers in private industry. They provide a wide variety of products and services purchased by governments, ranging from highly complex technical equipment for space and defense programs to such commonplace items as paper and pencils.[3]

[3] See app. table G–4 for the government expenditures supporting this employment.

As in most postwar years, the 1965 increase in government manpower requirements was concentrated in State and local governments. During the past year, almost 550,000 new jobs were created, as spending of these governments increased by $3.5 billion, to $68.4 billion (excluding compensation of employees in government enterprises).[4]

[4] In the national income and product accounts, Federal grants-in-aid (such as those for the Interstate Highway System) are reported as State and local expenditures. In 1965 Federal grants totaled $11.4 billion.

Of the total increase in jobs generated by State and local government expenditures last year, 400,000 reflected a rise in the number of direct government personnel. Most of these jobs were concentrated in expanding and upgrading educational and public health services, although requirements also increased in such areas as police and fire protection, highway systems, natural resource development, and park and recreational facilities.

By contrast, there was a net reduction for the year as a whole of about 120,000 in the total number of jobs associated with Federal expenditures, even though Federal purchases (excluding compensation of employees in Government enterprises) rose by $1.4 billion. This decline in jobs reflected two divergent trends: a slight increase in the total number of persons on Federal Government payrolls, which was more than offset by a decrease in private employment supported by Federal purchases.[5]

[5] Because of rising prices, there was a decline in physical volume of purchases. Together with increased productivity, these factors account in large part for the drop in employment in the private sector attributable to Federal Government expenditures.

OCCUPATIONAL EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT CHANGES

The changing industrial pattern of employment growth in 1965 was particularly important, because it resulted in occupational changes which enhanced employment opportunities for many members of the work force who had not previously benefited from the Nation's prosperity. In the first year of the present upturn, the recovery in blue-collar employment barely touched the least skilled workers. The subsequent economic expansion first strengthened demand for labor in higher skilled crafts, and finally, as hiring accelerated, among lesser skilled white- and blue-collar workers. Not until 1965, the 5th year of sustained expansion, did laborers—the least skilled blue-collar workers—share substantially in rising employment. (See table 6.)

TABLE 6. EMPLOYED PERSONS BY MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP, 1964–65

[Numbers in thousands]

Major occupation group	1964	1965	Change, 1964–65	
			Number	Percent
Total	70, 357	72, 179	1, 822	2. 6
White-collar workers	31, 125	32, 104	979	3. 1
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	8, 550	8, 883	333	3. 9
Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm	7, 452	7, 340	−112	−1. 5
Clerical and kindred workers	10, 667	11, 166	499	4. 7
Sales workers	4, 456	4, 715	259	5. 8
Blue-collar workers	25, 534	26, 466	932	3. 7
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	8, 986	9, 221	235	2. 6
Operatives and kindred workers	12, 924	13, 391	466	3. 6
Laborers, except farm and mine	3, 624	3, 855	231	6. 4
Service workers	9, 256	9, 342	86	. 9
Private household workers	2, 322	2, 251	−71	−3. 1
Service workers, except private household	6, 934	7, 091	157	2. 3
Farmworkers	4, 444	4, 265	−179	−4. 0
Farmers and farm managers	2, 320	2, 244	−76	−3. 3
Farm laborers and foremen	2, 124	2, 021	−103	−4. 8

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

The 1965 gain in blue-collar employment—amounting to 930,000 jobs—was the largest over-the-year increase since the Korean war boom of 1950–51. White-collar employment rose by even more in 1965—980,000—continuing its postwar trend at a more rapid rate. The sharpest increases were among clerical and sales workers. Little change took place in the overall employment of service workers, as a small increase in service workers outside of private households was partly offset by decreased employment of household workers.

Blue-Collar Employment [6]

Altogether, blue-collar employment has increased by 2.3 million since 1960, and has accounted for about one-third of the growth in nonfarm employment; in 1965, these occupations accounted for roughly one-half of the total nonfarm growth. By contrast, between 1957 and 1960 employment in these manual occupations actually declined by more than 600,000. (See chart 7.) The recent rate of growth in blue-collar employment (1.8 percent annual average since 1960) is also very encouraging when compared with the rate of less than 1 percent (about 130,000 jobs annually) during the relatively prosperous first decade after World War II.

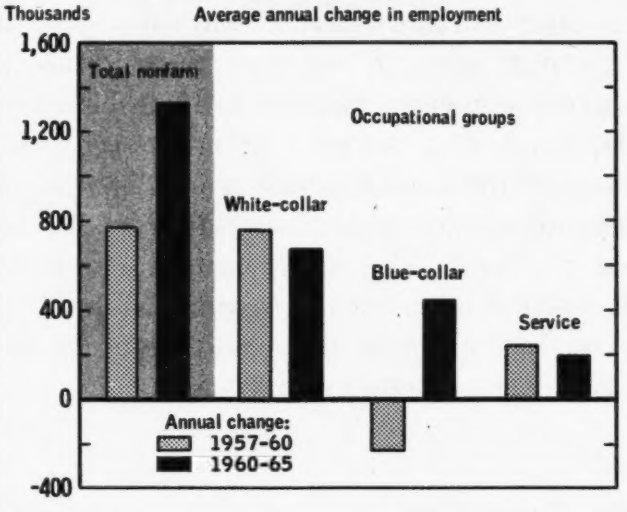
The most impressive feature of the 1965 increase in blue-collar employment was the unexpectedly large rise in the number of nonfarm laborers—6.4 percent—which was well above the rapid rate of increase in total nonfarm employment. After more than a decade of no growth, nonfarm laborers increased by 75,000 in 1964 and by 230,000 in 1965 to a total of 3.9 million, almost equaling the previous peak in 1951.

The increase is especially significant because these jobs are a major source of initial employment for young, unskilled workers, and it comes at a time when the teenage labor force is expanding rapidly. The importance of this occupation to young workers is indicated by the fact that almost one-fourth of all male teenagers in 1965 were nonfarm laborers.

[6] The terms "manual workers" and "blue-collar workers" are used interchangeably in this text to describe the total of nonfarm laborers, operatives, and craftsmen; "skilled workers" for craftsmen, "semiskilled" for operatives, and "unskilled" for laborers.

Chart 7

Turnabout in trend of blue-collar employment has been feature of current expansion.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

Largely as a result of the sharp expansion in manufacturing, employment in other blue-collar occupations also increased significantly in 1965: semiskilled operative jobs by more than 460,000, and skilled craftsmen and foremen by 235,000.

Blue-collar workers at all skill levels had substantially lower unemployment in 1965 than in 1964. The total number of jobless manual workers was reduced by 250,000, to 1.5 million in 1965 and their average unemployment rate dropped from 6.3 to 5.3 percent. The sharpest declines occurred among the less skilled—the laborers and operatives.

White-Collar Employment

Employment in white-collar jobs increased by almost 1 million between 1964 and 1965, a rate of growth of 3.1 percent, compared with the average of about 2 percent during 1960–65.

White-collar employment has grown steadily during most postwar years, in periods of both rapid and slow growth of the economy. In the relatively prosperous 1947–57 decade the average increase was 2.7 percent. This pace was main-

tained even in the relatively stagnant 1957–60 period when blue-collar employment actually declined. Since 1960, these trends have continued, with white-collar employment increasing in total by 3.4 million—1 million more than the blue-collar employment.

As among blue-collar workers, less skilled white-collar workers—clerical and sales—showed the sharpest gains in the past year. Thus, as the current economic expansion has lengthened and accelerated and as the job market has tightened, the demand for labor has been especially reflected in expanding employment opportunities for less skilled workers. The employment increase for white-collar workers was accompanied by a decline in their unemployment rate, from 2.6 percent in 1964 to 2.3 percent in 1965.

Service Occupations

This past year's modest growth in service employment—85,000, or 1 percent—contrasts sharply with the growth throughout most of the post-World War II period. From 1947 through 1964, employment in these jobs expanded on the average by roughly 3 percent a year. Last year's increase was concentrated in the industries providing personal, educational, and other professional services.

This expansion was partially offset by a decline in household service work as more desirable job opportunities have become available. From 1947 through 1960, the employment of private household workers increased by almost 2 percent a year. Between 1960 and 1964, the number of employed domestic workers was virtually unchanged and then dropped by 70,000, or about 3 percent, in 1965.

Even though overall service employment grew little between 1964 and 1965, unemployment of service workers was reduced—from 5.8 to 5.2 percent. Workers appear to be moving out of the lower paying service occupations (or not entering them) in favor of better paying employment opportunities in semiskilled operative and unskilled laborer jobs in manufacturing and trade. However, unemployment rates for both household and other service workers remain high, and above their 1957 levels.

GEOGRAPHY OF EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT CHANGES

Nonfarm job gains were registered in every State except South Dakota and Wyoming during 1965. As might be expected from the nature of the year's job expansion, the most dramatic improvements occurred in States producing heavy equipment and consumer durable goods such as steel, machinery, and automobiles. This resulted in a renewal of growth in the East North Central States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, where employment rose by 450,000, or 3.7 percent—about two-fifths more than in 1964. (See table 7 and chart 8.) This region accounted for one-fifth of all new nonfarm jobs created during 1965.

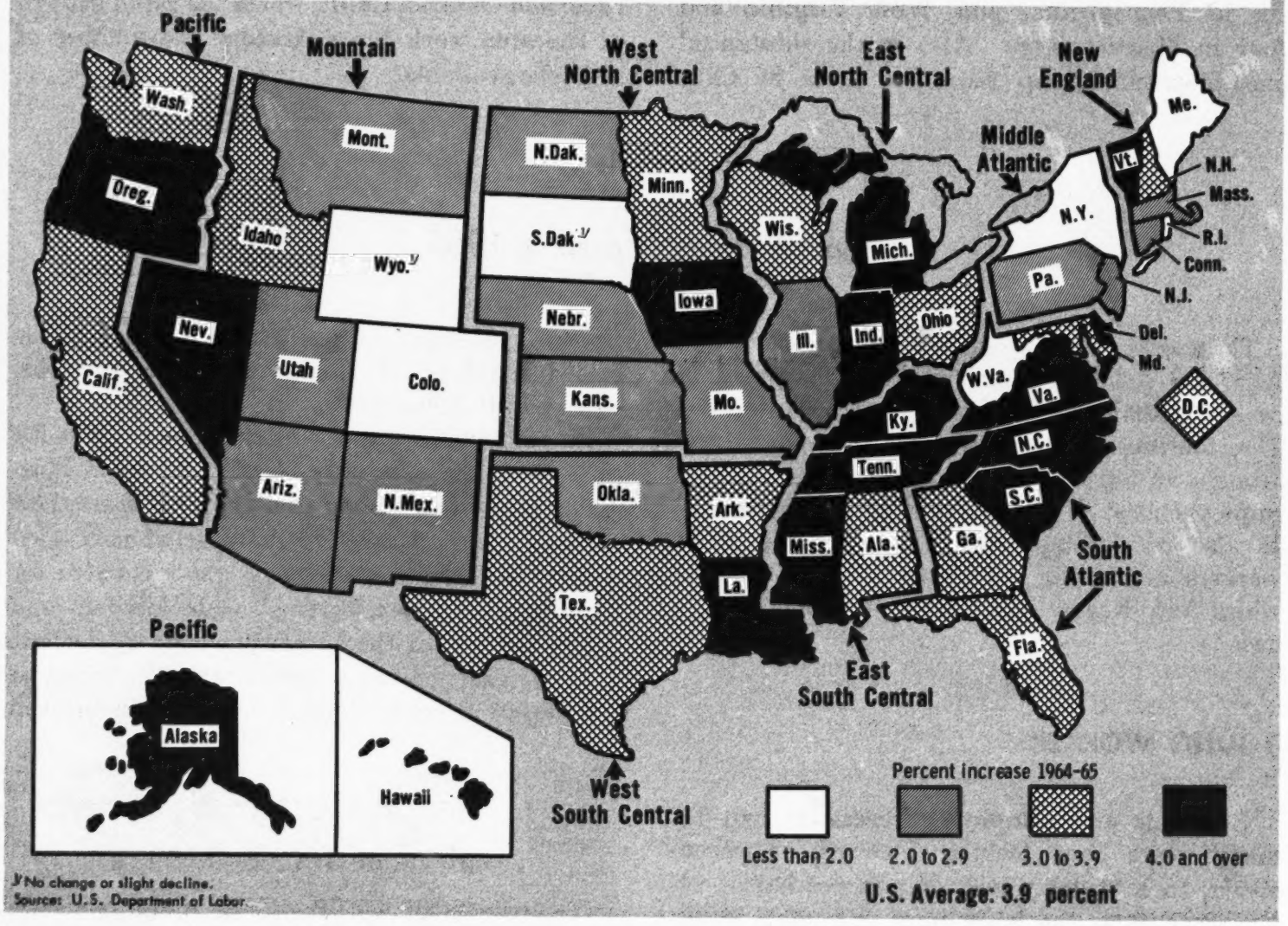
The South continued to be one of the fastest growing sections in the United States. The rate of job creation accelerated particularly in the East South Central States of Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi, where the year-to-year employment gains amounted to 134,000, or 4.4 percent. This was not only the highest regional growth rate, but represented the 4th consecutive year in which jobs have risen at a faster annual rate.

In the Northeast—from New Jersey and Pennsylvania to Maine—employment growth last year was fairly modest. While about 300,000 more nonfarmworkers were employed in these 2 regions in 1965 than in 1964, the rate of advance—averaging less than 2 percent—continued to lag behind the national rate.

Although employment growth in the Mountain and Pacific States also speeded up in 1965, the increases were not as vigorous as in the South and Central regions; the recent changes in the pattern of defense spending, such as the shift of procurement orders from the West to other regions, undoubtedly have had an impact on new employment opportunities. Thus, employment increases in States bordering the Pacific coast—and in Alaska and Hawaii—averaged 3.4 percent last year, slightly less than for the country as a whole. The past year's record contrasts markedly with previous years when this region led the country in job generation. The pickup in defense spending in the last half of 1965, however, points to a

Chart 8

Change in nonfarm employment, 1964-65



1/ No change or slight decline.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor

Table 7. Nonfarm Payroll Employment by Region, 1964–65

[Numbers in thousands]

Region [1]	1964	1965 [2]	Percent change, 1964–65 [2]
New England	3,859	3,949	2.3
Middle Atlantic	12,299	12,515	1.8
East North Central	12,184	12,637	3.7
West North Central	4,437	4,563	2.8
South Atlantic	8,115	8,423	3.8
East South Central	3,070	3,204	4.4
West South Central	4,702	4,868	3.5
Mountain	2,111	2,154	2.0
Pacific	7,286	7,537	3.4

[1] See app. table D-1 for States comprising regions.
[2] Data for 1965 are preliminary.

higher rate of employment growth in 1966 for many of these States.

Unemployment trends among the Nation's 150 major labor areas were generally in line with the downward movement of nationwide unemployment during 1965. In December of last year, 48 major areas were classified as having low unemployment (rates ranging from 1.5 to 2.9 percent); in early 1961, at the trough of the recession, none of the major areas had such low unemployment.

Eighty-three areas were classified in December 1965 as areas of moderate unemployment, with rates in the 3.0 to 5.9 percent range. On the other hand, 19 major areas still had substantial unemployment (rates of 6 percent or above)—10 fewer than a year ago. Early in 1961, there were 101 major areas with surplus labor problems.

About half of the areas of substantial unem-

ployment in 1965 were those with long histories of declining job opportunities in the mining, textile, and railroad industries. These included six in Pennsylvania and West Virginia and four in Massachusetts. Also in the substantial unemployment group were five areas in California, two in Puerto Rico, and one each in New Jersey and in Minnesota-Wisconsin. The only newcomer to this list in 1965 was San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario, Calif., where the rapid growth of the area work force exceeded the number of new jobs available.

How Workers Fared in 1965

The accelerated growth in economic activity in 1965 was sufficiently strong and widespread to benefit virtually all groups of American workers. The continued expansion in job opportunities brought an especially pronounced increase in the employment of new young workers and of women. It also cut unemployment rates among older workers and among adult men and women, both white and Negro, to their lowest points in a decade.

YOUNG WORKERS

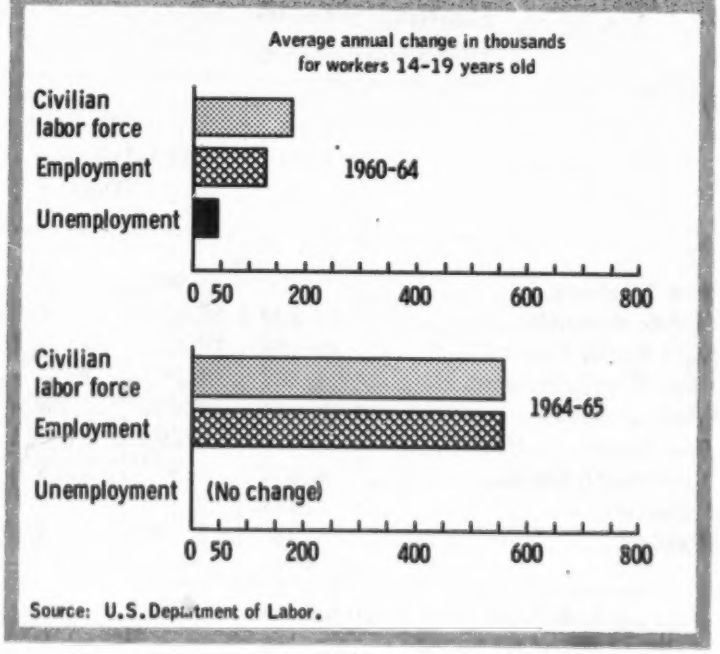
Economic and manpower forecasters had for many years been looking forward, apprehensively, to a "tidal wave" of postwar babies expected to enter the labor force and swell unemployment in 1965. The wave arrived with fully as much force as anticipated; some 550,000 teenagers entered the civilian labor force, 3 times the average increase of the preceding 4 years. They accounted for 40 percent of the labor force growth in 1965, twice as much as in 1960–64. But teenagers' employment rose so much that their unemployment rate instead of increasing, declined slightly—from 14.7 to 13.6 percent. (See chart 9). Of course, this rate of unemployment remains far above any acceptable level.

The vigorous prosperity of 1965 was the indispensable ingredient in making sufficient jobs available. But large numbers of youth were assisted directly and indirectly in getting jobs (and thereby were able to contribute to sustaining that prosperity) by a variety of manpower programs, including training and vocational education, and counseling, testing, and placement services. Anti-poverty programs in particular helped provide record numbers of youths with summer jobs, especially full-time jobs.

Employment improved more for boys than for girls, with the unusually heavy increase in blue-collar jobs, where young men typically start their work careers. A relative shortage of men aged 25 to 44 also benefited the boys, who accounted for two-thirds of the additional male laborers and over one-third of the additional male operatives. In fact, such jobs represented over two-thirds of the 360,000 increase in male teenage employment in

Chart 9

Gain in teenage employment matched record teenage labor force increase in 1965, a sharp contrast to 1960-64 experience.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

TABLE 8. UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY AGE, COLOR, AND SEX, 1957 AND 1963–65

Item	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 years and over		
				Total	25 to 44 years	45 years and over
ALL PERSONS						
Men						
1957	4.1	11.3	7.8	3.2	3.1	3.4
1963	5.3	15.5	8.8	4.0	3.9	4.0
1964	4.7	14.5	8.1	3.3	3.2	3.5
1965	4.0	13.1	6.3	2.8	2.7	2.9
Women						
1957	4.7	10.1	6.0	3.9	4.5	3.2
1963	6.5	15.7	8.9	4.9	5.9	3.9
1964	6.2	15.0	8.6	4.6	5.5	3.7
1965	5.5	14.3	7.3	4.0	5.0	3.0
NONWHITE						
Men						
1957	8.4	17.5	12.7	6.8	7.5	6.0
1963	10.6	25.4	15.5	8.2	8.8	7.5
1964	9.1	23.3	12.6	6.9	6.9	6.9
1965	7.6	22.6	9.3	5.4	5.6	5.2
Women						
1957	7.4	18.9	12.2	5.5	6.4	4.1
1963	11.3	33.1	18.7	8.0	9.9	5.4
1964	10.8	30.6	18.3	7.5	9.3	5.0
1965	9.3	29.8	13.7	6.4	8.0	4.1

1965. This sharp increase more than counterbalanced the continuing decline in farm employment, which this year cost male teenagers another 35,000 jobs.

The rate of unemployment decreased from 14.5 to 13.1 percent for teenage boys, and less for teenage girls—from 15.0 to 14.3 percent. (See table 8.) The unemployment rate for 18- and 19-year-old girls, at approximately 15 percent, showed no significant change for the 3d year in a row.

Employment of persons 20 to 24 years of age also increased dramatically—by 400,000 between 1964 and 1965—absorbing a large labor force increase and also cutting into unemployment substantially. (See table 9.) The unemployment rate for young men in this age group declined from 8.1 to 6.3 percent and that for women from 8.6 to 7.3 percent—a noticeably sharper drop than for workers in other age groups.

As among teenagers, the increase in employment of young men (aged 20 to 24) was largely in blue-collar work, particularly as semiskilled operatives. However, because so many of these young adults had greater experience and education, they also showed significant increases as craftsmen and professionals. About four-fifths of the nearly 200,000 increase among young women was in white-collar—primarily clerical—occupations, where their employment is typically concentrated.

Possibly no other single group in recent years has suffered employment problems as severe as those that beset young Negroes,[7] who are handicapped by inadequate education and lack of job

[7] "Negro" and "nonwhite" are used interchangeably in this text, although the figures for nonwhites upon which the analysis is based include approximately 5 percent who are not Negroes—mainly Indians and Orientals.

experience and training, as well as by discrimination in its many forms. Accordingly, government, community, and private organizations have introduced and expanded programs to improve their employability and remove some of the many barriers that prevent them from sharing equitably in the Nation's progress. These measures, along with the strong general improvement in economic conditions, helped many Negro youth find jobs in 1965; and the rate of unemployment of Negroes in their early twenties dropped considerably. However, the extremely high unemployment rates of teenage Negroes remained unchanged. (See table 8.)

Nonwhite teenagers—both boys and girls—appear to be the outstanding exception to the general improvement in the unemployment situation among American workers. Employment among nonwhite teenage boys rose just enough to parallel the labor force growth, but not enough to lower their high rate of unemployment—still 23 percent. Significantly, there was no increase at all in employment of nonwhite teenage girls, and their rate of unemployment remained at a very high 30 percent.

Young nonwhite men 20 to 24 fared much better than the teenagers as they accounted for one-fifth of the employment increase for all young men in these ages and their unemployment rate dropped sharply, from 12.6 to 9.3 percent.

Occupational changes for young Negro men were encouraging, with about three-fourths of their increased employment occurring in the relatively well-paid semiskilled operative occupations. Too often they have been limited to only unskilled laboring jobs. Among young Negro women in their early twenties, the rate of unemployment also dropped very sharply—from 18.3 percent to 13.7 percent.

ADULT MEN

The unemployment rate for all men 25 and over dropped to 2.8 percent in 1965 from 3.3 percent a year earlier and 4.0 percent in 1963. This was its lowest point since 1953. Moreover, by the last quarter of 1965, their unemployment (seasonally adjusted) averaged only 2.5 percent. For married men, whose unemployment is particularly critical, it was only 2.0 percent, lower than at any time since the Korean conflict.

The employment of men 25 and over rose by more than 300,000, with heavy increases in manufacturing, particularly durable goods and construction, and hence, in jobs for operatives and craftsmen. (See table 9.) Since the lack of

TABLE 9. CHANGES IN CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE, EMPLOYMENT, AND UNEMPLOYMENT, BY AGE AND SEX, 1964–65

[Thousands]

Item	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years			20 to 24 years	25 years and over		
		Total	14 to 17 years	18 and 19 years		Total	25 to 44 years	45 years and over
MEN								
Labor force	604	351	61	290	140	113	−7	120
Employment	895	359	71	289	213	323	85	238
Unemployment	−291	−8	−10	2	−73	−208	−91	−117
Unemployed 15 weeks or more	−148	−15	−12	−4	−23	−110	−36	−73
WOMEN								
Labor force	798	209	14	195	154	437	255	182
Employment	927	199	29	170	185	542	297	245
Unemployment	−129	11	−15	24	−30	−111	−44	−67
Unemployed 15 weeks or more	−70	3	−1	4	−20	−52	−29	−24

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

growth in the male population in the central age groups (due to low birth rates prior to World War II) has severely limited the available supply of these experienced workers, most of those newly hired in 1965 came from the unemployed.

The number of unemployed men declined by about 200,000 between 1964 and 1965, representing nearly half of the Nation's total decrease. But most encouraging was the substantial drop (110,000) among the men unemployed 15 weeks or longer.

One of the most significant developments in 1965 was the substantial improvement in the job situation for men 45 and older. Their unemployment rate dropped from 3.5 a year earlier to 2.9 percent—considerably below the rate of 1957 (3.4 percent). More importantly, their long-term unemployment was reduced by more than a fourth. On the employment side, fully two-thirds of the quarter million increase for these men occurred among craftsmen, including nearly 100,000 men 55 to 64 years of age.

Negro men also benefited substantially from the improved economic situation in 1965. Sustained general prosperity had finally resulted in improvements for workers who typically are "the last to be hired and the first to be fired." The wide range of government economic and social measures in behalf of Negroes and other disadvantaged groups also helped.

The unemployment rate for nonwhite men 25 and over dropped sharply from 6.9 percent in 1964 to 5.4 percent in 1965, the lowest in over a decade. This drop was slightly greater than for white men (from 3.0 to 2.5 percent). Furthermore, the improvement was sharpest toward the end of 1965; between the fourth quarters of 1964 and 1965, the unemployment rate for nonwhite men was reduced by a third. In addition, a large part of their increased employment was among semiskilled operatives. Thus, developments in both employment and unemployment for Negro men were clearly favorable this past year.

WOMEN

Women 25 and over entered the labor force in substantial numbers in 1965, and there was an unusually heavy influx of younger women. The labor force increase among those 25 and older (440,000) was one of the largest since 1956. Nevertheless, their unemployment rate dropped from 4.6 to 4.0 percent, about the same as in 1957.

Employment increases in 1965 among women occurred in occupations where they were already concentrated, but the increases were much larger than usual. Most of the employment gains were in clerical jobs (44 percent) but noticeable gains also occurred in the professional and kindred occupations, including nursing.

The year 1965 brought substantial improvement in the job situation for nonwhite women for the first time since early in the recovery. Unemployment among nonwhite women 45 and over was back to its 1957 rate, but for nonwhite women 25 to 44 it remained much higher.

THE CHALLENGE OF UNEMPLOYMENT

The reduction in unemployment among virtually every group in the population (Negro teenagers providing the notable exception) was perhaps the most encouraging development of the expansion in 1965. The consequence has been to pose an even greater challenge to the economy in 1966. For, among the remaining unemployed are persons least able to benefit from the general availability of job opportunities, and least able to contribute, without assistance, to meeting the developing shortages of labor. The potential for further improvement in the economic condition of these workers lies in continued expansion in employment opportunities, supported by specific programs directed at increasing their employability. The potential contribution of sustained economic growth to this end is discussed in the following section.

Economic Growth and Employment Opportunities

For a decade following 1953, there had been little or no growth of employment in goods-producing industries and in blue-collar employment. With the recent recovery of goods-related and blue-collar employment providing new job opportunities for hundreds of thousands of workers per year, critical questions now center on the significance of this apparent reversal of trend.

Can we, for example, reasonably anticipate further rapid growth in manufacturing employment and in the less skilled manual occupations? A review of the postwar year-to-year relationship between growth in total output and employment in the goods-producing sector of the economy and in blue-collar occupations throws some revealing light on this subject. An examination of these relationships shows that the rate of growth in output and its duration not only affect the size of the employment gain, but also—just as significantly—the industrial and occupational distribution of the job increase. The recent change in employment pattern can be traced directly to the maintenance of a high rate of growth in the economy in recent years, and particularly to the acceleration of growth since 1963. Seen in this perspective, the recent strong employment gains in goods-producing and related industries and in blue-collar occupations are not a break with previous experience, but rather are in accord with observed postwar relationships.

OUTPUT, PRODUCTIVITY, AND EMPLOYMENT GROWTH

Changes in employment reflect the interaction of changes in three basic variables: output, productivity, and hours of work. Unless the rate of gain in real GNP in any specific year is greater than the rise in productivity, employment will show no growth, or will actually decline (assuming no change in hours of work). Significant productivity gains have occurred in all but a few of the 18 postwar years and have influenced substantially the potential employment effects of the increases in output. (See table 10.)

For the last 18 years, productivity for the total economy has been increasing at an average annual rate of about 3 percent. However, the laborsaving effects of part of this increase have been offset by a decline in hours. While changes in hours have not played a major role in most individual postwar years, they have been trending gradually downward by about a half of a percent per year. Thus, on the average, an annual increase of over 2½ percent in total real GNP has been needed for significant job growth. For the postwar period as a whole (1947–65), real GNP has risen at an average annual rate of 3¾ percent per year and employment has gone up by about 1¼ percent per year.

While on average, a growth rate of about 2½ percent in real GNP has been sufficient to hold total employment about constant, a much higher growth rate is required to keep unemployment from rising; i.e., the economic growth rate must be great enough not only to offset the gain in productivity, but also to absorb the increase in the labor force. Employment growth was sufficiently great to reduce unemployment in only 10 of the 18 postwar years; the increase in real total product has been 4½ percent or more in 8 out of 10 of these years. With the growth rate of the labor force speeding up during the next half decade, the pace of the advance in output needed to reduce unemployment further will be higher than has been required so far during the postwar period.

The gains in total employment and reduction in unemployment registered since 1960 are clearly traceable to the large and steady advance in national output: since the last business cycle peak in early 1960 the real volume of output has increased at an average annual rate of 4¼ percent and total employment has gone up by almost 1¾ percent per year. This is in marked contrast to the previous business cycle. From the cyclical peak in late 1957 through the peak in early 1960, real GNP went up by only about 3 percent yearly and employment increased by less than three-quarters of a percent per year.

The sensitive postwar relationship between changes in real GNP and employment derives largely from the performance of the goods-related industries. Output and job growth in the service-producing industries (including government) and in service and white-collar occupations have been relatively continuous, and insensitive to the mild

TABLE 10. ANNUAL CHANGES IN REAL GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT, EMPLOYMENT AND RELATED DATA, 1947–65

Year	Percent change		Absolute change (millions)		
	Real gross national product	Total employment	Total employment	Civilian labor force	Unemployment
Average, 1947–65	3.8	1.2	.8	.9	.1
1947–48	4.5	2.3	1.3	1.3	----------
1948–49	.1	−1.2	−.7	.7	1.4
1949–50	9.6	2.3	1.3	1.0	−.3
1950–51	7.9	1.7	1.0	−.2	−1.3
1951–52	3.1	.4	.3	.1	−.2
1952–53	4.5	1.5	.9	.8	−.1
1953–54	−1.4	−1.7	−1.1	.7	1.7
1954–55	7.6	3.4	2.1	1.4	−.7
1955–56	1.8	2.8	1.8	1.7	−.1
1956–57	1.4	.5	.3	.4	.1
1957–58	−1.1	−1.6	−1.0	.7	1.7
1958–59	6.4	2.5	1.6	.7	−.9
1959–60	2.5	1.7	1.1	1.2	.1
1960–61	1.9	.2	.1	1.0	.9
1961–62	6.6	1.6	1.1	.3	−.8
1962–63	3.8	1.4	1.0	1.1	.2
1963–64	5.0	2.2	1.5	1.3	−.3
1964–65	5.5	2.6	1.8	1.4	−.4

swings in the rate of economic growth all during the postwar period. In contrast, changes in the rate of growth in total real GNP and changes in employment in the goods-producing and blue-collar sectors have been sharp and closely correlated. So, in effect, the swings in employment growth in the postwar years have reflected almost entirely the changing rates of growth in the goods-producing industries.

BREAK-EVEN POINTS

The close relationship between the rate of overall economic growth and changes in employment in the goods industries has made it possible to calculate a rate of GNP growth that has, on the average, been required just to sustain employment in various industries, i.e., the "break-even" point. Table 11 presents these break-even points for employment in the goods-related industries as a whole and for the major goods-producing industries separately, based on a regression analysis of annual percent changes in total real GNP and annual percent changes in employment in the respective industries.[8]

The break-even points for employment in the goods industries cluster slightly above a 3-percent growth rate in total real GNP; at this growth rate there tends to be little if any change in employment in these industries. But because this sector of the economy is cyclically volatile, changes above or below the 3-plus-percent average in the rate of overall economic growth tend to be magnified—yielding relatively greater output and employment changes in goods-producing industries, especially in the hard goods area. Table 11 highlights these relationships, showing the average changes in employment in the major goods-producing industries that are associated with total real GNP changes of various magnitudes.

[8] A linear least-squares regression line was fitted for each series of total real GNP-employment percent changes. The correlation coefficients are as follows: Total goods-related employment, .88; total manufacturing, .88; durable goods manufacturing, .86; nondurable goods manufacturing, .90; transportation and public utilities, .75; contract construction, .75; and blue-collar occupations, .84.

TABLE 11. AVERAGE EMPLOYMENT CHANGES IN GOODS-RELATED INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS ASSOCIATED WITH CHANGES IN TOTAL REAL GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT

[Based on relationships for the period 1947–64]

Industry	Break-even point [1]	Percent change in total real gross national product										
		−2	−1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
		Average percent change in employment										
Total goods-related industries [2]	3.2	−5.7	−4.6	−3.5	−2.4	−1.3	−.2	.9	2.0	3.1	4.2	5.3
Contract construction	1.4	−3.8	−2.7	−1.6	−.5	.7	1.8	2.9	4.1	5.2	6.3	7.5
Manufacturing	3.2	−6.5	−5.3	−4.0	−2.8	−1.5	−.3	1.0	2.3	3.5	4.8	6.0
Durable goods	3.2	−9.1	−7.3	−5.6	−3.8	−2.0	−.3	1.5	3.3	5.1	6.8	8.6
Nondurable goods	3.3	−3.3	−2.6	−2.0	−1.4	−.8	−.2	.4	1.0	1.6	2.2	2.9
Transportation and public utilities	4.2	−4.0	−3.4	−2.7	−2.1	−1.4	−.8	−.1	.5	1.2	1.8	2.5
Blue-collar occupations [3]	3.1	−4.3	−3.5	−2.6	−1.8	−1.0	−.1	.7	1.6	2.4	3.2	4.1

[1] The percentage increase in total real gross national product needed, on average, to keep employment from falling.

[2] Includes mining, not shown separately.

[3] Includes craftsmen and foremen, operatives, nonfarm laborers, and kindred workers, employed in all industries.

Discrete periods of different rates of economic growth in the postwar years serve to illustrate the relationship between growth in total output and in employment in the goods-related industries.

When the pace of the economic expansion is slack (as in the period 1957–60), growth in demand for both consumer and business durable goods tends to be very moderate; the output of the goods-producing industries expands more slowly than the economy as a whole, and employment in these industries and associated blue-collar occupations levels off or declines. Thus, from the business cycle peak in mid-1957 to the next peak in early 1960, when the real volume of output for the Nation as a whole rose by only 3 percent per year—slightly under the break-even point—hard goods production went up by only about 1½ percent per year, and employment in the goods industries fell by a total 375,000, or nearly 0.5 percent per year. Employment in durable manufacturing fell at the same rate, by a total of 100,000, and jobs in transportation and public utilities declined over 200,000—an average drop of 2 percent per year. These patterns are closely in line with the average postwar relationships. The decline in employment in the goods-producing industries occurred even while their output was rising slowly, as a result of productivity advances.

Periods of sustained and rapid economic expansion, on the other hand, are generally characterized by rapid gains in consumer demand for durable goods such as autos, household furniture and equipment, and in business demand for capital equipment. This pattern of demand typically leads to sharp increases in production and employment in the goods handling and producing industries—especially in durable goods manufacturing—and among blue-collar workers (craftsmen, operatives, and nonfarm laborers). Thus, the recent (1960–65) pattern of vigorous recovery and then expansion of employment in the goods-related industrial sector—especially manufacturing and construction—also conforms to the postwar experience. Since the most recent peak in economic activity in early 1960, total output has been rising at 4¼ percent a year, and output of all durables has expanded at an annual rate of about 5¼ percent. At the same time, employment in the goods-related industries has gone up by a total of 1½ million, about 1 percent per year.

THE EXPERIENCE OF 1965

In 1965 the gain in employment in goods-related industries was actually somewhat stronger than would have been suggested by its average relationship to GNP in previous postwar years. The real volume of output increased by about 5½ percent last year, and this increase, on the average, should have resulted in a 2½-percent gain—or 600,000 jobs—in goods employment if the past relationships applied exactly. Actually, the gain amounted to 4 percent, or nearly 1 million jobs. Primarily, this record is traceable to a below-average gain in productivity.

As the employment-GNP relationships are based on postwar (1947–64) experience and so strongly reflect the recurrent recessions and sharp recoveries of that period, they will not necessarily hold in the future. Thus far in the postwar period, above-average growth in GNP has always been associated with sharp gains in durable goods output and employment. However, it is possible that under conditions of sustained prosperity, without sharp recessions and recoveries, a high rate of growth in business activity will occur without so high a rate of growth in hard goods demand. If so, employment changes in the goods sector would not follow the historical pattern. In addition, a sustained speedup or slowdown in the rate of gain in productivity would obviously invalidate the historical relationship.

The recent economic record, however, indicates no great departure from the postwar pattern, which suggests that if total output grows at only the average yearly pace of the postwar period—3¾ percent—output of durable goods is likely to increase very slowly and employment in the goods industries, and total employment, will grow at a rate inadequate to meet the needs of a rapidly expanding labor force. If future growth can proceed at a substantially faster rate—for example, at an average of more than 4 percent—then a more optimistic outlook for output and employment in the goods-producing sector may be warranted.

The Outlook at Yearend

The American economy entered the second half of the decade with an unprecedented record of 5 years of advance in prosperity and with expectations of even greater progress during the remainder of the decade. The improvement in national well-being was dramatically reflected in the overall reduction of unemployment.

But, some groups were plainly faring better than others. The high demand for skilled and experienced workers was reflected in the low unemployment rates for craftsmen, and in turn for men aged 25 and over. Both were lower than in 1957 and only slightly above the levels of the Korean period, when labor shortages were being reported widely.

The demand for workers spilled over into all categories and much progress was made in aiding groups which chronically bear the burden of high unemployment and underemployment. Nonwhite workers showed significant improvement. Virtually all groups except teenagers showed substantially less unemployment at the end of 1965 than the year before, and the pace of employment gains going into 1966 suggested that further progress would be made.

But this expansion of the economy posed a potentially serious problem. Obviously, more and better employment opportunities were required to improve further the employment position of disadvantaged groups. Suitable public and private policies will be needed to assure that the necessary rapid pace of business expansion will not be unduly inhibited by shortage of certain kinds of workers and by dislocations.

THE TIGHTENING MANPOWER SITUATION

At yearend all the broad measures of work activity pointed to an increased tightening of the manpower situation in 1966:

The pace of job expansion. Employment gains at the end of 1965 were at a rate substan-

tially more rapid than even the large gains of the previous year. Approximately 2.6 million workers were added to nonfarm payrolls in the 4 quarters of 1965; the third-to-fourth quarter increase in 1965 was at an annual rate of over 3 million jobs.

The expanding defense effort. Increased American activity in Vietnam was already reflected in a 10-percent expansion in employment during 1965 in major defense-related industries. Larger defense expenditures during 1966 would unquestionably lead to further expansion in these industries. In addition, indirect effects of the defense effort in increasing demand for other supplies, services, and raw materials would be felt widely in the economy.

The increased military buildup. The increase in the Armed Forces of 330,000 over the mid-1965 level requested in the January 1966 budget message could result in significant tightening of the job market.

Nearly all of the military buildup over the first year will occur among 18- to 24-year-old men. The male labor force was expected to increase by about 650,000 between 1965 and 1966—mostly in the age group 18 to 24. If the strength of the Armed Forces increases by 330,000 in 1966, only half of the expected labor force increase would be available to the civilian economy. Since very little expansion in the labor force can be expected from men over 24 years of age in 1966, and not many jobs can be filled from the remaining unemployed men, substantial additional pressures would be exerted on the manpower supply.

A declining number of available unemployed. As the national rate of unemployment fell to a 9-year low at the end of 1965, fewer workers were available from the "pool" of the jobless. Jobless rates for the groups in greatest demand fell to levels previously attained only during the period of the Korean conflict.

Sector shortages. In some industrial centers, especially the Great Lakes manufacturing complexes of Chicago, Detroit, Cleveland, and Milwaukee, unemployment rates were already down to 2½ percent or less by yearend, at or close to minimal "frictional" levels. One-third of the 150 major labor areas of the Nation were classified as low unemployment areas (3 percent or less).

Some industries and occupations showed an actual or incipient tightening in labor availability. For example, unemployment among automobile workers fell below 1 percent in December. Professional and technical workers and craftsmen were reported in short supply in some areas, particularly engineers, scientists, technicians, tool and die makers, machinists and other skilled metal workers, and some repairmen and teachers. In perspective, however, shortages have long been reported in many of these occupations when the economy was visibly far from full employment.

Record hours of work. High demand for labor was evidenced also in longer hours of work; virtually all major manufacturing industries lengthened their workweek in 1965. The December level of 41.7 hours was the highest for any December since the Second World War; overtime work at premium pay averaged 4.0 hours, the highest since collection of these figures began 10 years ago; and in nonagricultural industries as a whole, 1 of every 3 persons at work put in 41 hours or more in the December survey week.

POTENTIAL VERSUS ACTUAL SHORTAGES

Against this general backdrop of high labor demand and declining labor availability, a serious potential for labor shortages existed. At the initiative of Secretary W. Willard Wirtz, the Department of Labor is working with the Department of Defense, the Department of Commerce, and other agencies to learn the specific manpower requirements, shortages, and surpluses in specific areas, occupations, and industries.

However, spot surveys by the Department of Labor late in 1965 and early in 1966 failed to show any evidence of substantial or widespread shortages of workers, nor any indication that production schedules were being impeded. There was strong evidence of emerging shortages in a few areas and occupations, but there were also surpluses in others.

The manpower situation in which prospering industrial communities found themselves was exemplified by Milwaukee. In early 1966, a task force was sent to Milwaukee by the Interagency Manpower Requirements Group, established by the Secretary of Labor, to appraise the pressures on the city's manpower resources. Milwaukee at that time was considered one of the tightest labor areas in the United States.

Some of the more significant findings were these:

1. *At the time of the survey, there was no general or critical shortage of factory manpower in the Milwaukee area.* This did not mean that more qualified workers would not have been hired if they were available, but that production schedules were being met—by resorting to 5½- and 6-day workweeks and by laying on second and third work shifts, although some firms reported difficulty in staffing the second and third shifts.

2. *However, the supply of presently available skilled labor was stretched nearly to its limits.* Some types of highly skilled workers, particularly machinists, were in very short supply. Moreover, with the Milwaukee unemployment rate in December at 2.3 percent (seasonally adjusted), companies were also having difficulty in attracting and keeping workers at the entry levels. Also, some companies reported that their delivery schedules were already being lengthened.

3. *Under the circumstances present, manpower shortages could prove critical if production schedules were raised.* If sufficient numbers of qualified workers do not become available, production schedules could be held up, "raiding" of workers undertaken, and wage distortions introduced.

4. *Despite the threat of impending shortages, many available remedies for increasing the supply of needed workers were not being used.* Negroes and women in particular were underutilized.

THE ROLE OF MANPOWER POLICY

The likelihood of experiencing shortages in individual occupations and areas becomes greater as growth continues at a high rate and full employment is approached. The need for preparing against this eventuality has been recognized as an essential element of any program which aims at achieving and maintaining full employment. It is this challenge which the Nation's manpower policy has undertaken to meet.

Operating alongside and within the framework of overall economic policy, the special contribution of manpower policy lies in reducing waste in matching workers and jobs through development of worker capabilities and improved adjustment between industry needs and available human resources. In a broader sense, manpower policy embraces both social and economic goals, since it deals with human beings and aims at raising their productive abilities, promoting their full employment, and raising their levels of living.

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 is one of the basic instruments of this policy. During the first 2 years of its operation, training programs under the act were designed primarily to increase the skills of the hard-core unemployed so that they could qualify for the job vacancies which persisted even while the economy was still far short of full employment. The increasing prospect of skill shortages, however, has led to a broadened scope of training under the MDTA, which is extending its thrust toward training workers who may already possess useful skills, to enable them to meet requirements for jobs in critical demand.

Approximately 35 percent of MDTA training in 1966 will be directed specifically toward averting skill shortages, 40 percent will be devoted to occupational reclamation of the hard-core unemployed, and 25 percent will be directed specifically to disadvantaged youth.

OTHER REMEDIES FOR LABOR SHORTAGE

Despite the evidence of pressures in the job market, there are a number of resources which can meet the Nation's manpower needs. The largest of these resources is of course the 1½ million persons who can be expected to enter the labor force annually during the next few years, mainly as a result of the growing population. There are also still many among the 3 million unemployed who possess skills needed by employers, and many more who can be trained to meet job requirements. Another source is the underemployed—the many persons who are not currently working at their potential and who can be given the opportunity to use the abilities they have. In addition, there were still over 2 million workers involuntarily on part time in 1965 who were presumably available for full-time work.

Of equal importance is the potential manpower available in the Nation's "labor reserve." A very substantial proportion of the highly educated population of the United States is not permanently attached to the labor force, particularly women whose family responsibilities have dimin-

ished as their children have grown up. Possibly because of the increasing demand for workers, labor force participation rates among adult women were rising somewhat faster during the last half of 1965 than expected on the basis of longrun trends. Even so, current reports show many firms—some of them professing great anxieties over labor shortages—have failed to consider hiring women workers at all, or have relegated them to only a select few of the traditional "women jobs." The Negro work force is particularly underutilized; in many areas Negroes are still barred from advancement into skilled trades. Moreover, larger numbers of Negro men than white men are outside the labor force at the working ages. Many of these Negroes could be brought into productive employment with suitable training and encouragement.

Private industry, in cooperation with organized labor, will continue to play the major role in meeting its own manpower needs, in developing the skills of its workers, and in engineering jobs so that they can best be filled by the workers available. Although the bulk of adjustments will take place in this way, action by Government can play a decisive part in supporting industry and labor in matching workers with jobs. Probably the most readily applicable measures in averting shortages are manpower programs involving training, both institutional and on-the-job, based on a systematic anticipation of industry needs, as well as a wide variety of flexible measures designed to meet current manpower needs and responsive to changing conditions. Other approaches include exploration of such lines as greater publication of job openings outside of the immediate area, assisting workers who desire to move to areas of greatest labor need, reassessing the draft standards based on critical occupations, and encouraging firms to analyze their requirements for workers and to relax their requirements, on the basis of redesigned job structures.

SOME CONCLUSIONS

For the first time in 8 years, the economy has come within striking range of the goal of full employment. Consecutive large gains in employment in 1964 and 1965, and a reduction in unemployment among virtually all groups, have allayed some of the anxiety about creating enough jobs for the growing labor force and moved the focus of national attention to the possible development of labor shortages.

But the shift in focus is more apparent than real. The twin concerns of full employment have been to provide jobs for people—to meet the goals of social equity—and to provide people for jobs—to meet the expanding material needs of society. The tasks have not been separable, even if some shift in emphasis has been possible: whenever manpower programs have enabled individuals to make a better living by upgrading their abilities, the more productive employment has also served the objective of sustaining and adding to economic and job growth.

Both the accomplishments of the past half decade and the challenges of the next half decade have been outlined in previous pages. Some conclusions emerge from the relation of past successes to future responsibilities:

1. *The magnitude of the job creation challenge has in no wise diminished.* Large increases in the labor force will continue each year for many years to come. Growth in the economy at a high rate will be necessary during the remainder of the decade to provide jobs for new entrants and to further reduce unemployment to tolerable levels. The magnitude of our future manpower resources and requirements is discussed in detail in the following chapter.

2. *The reduction in unemployment over the past 2 years, especially among the "hard core" of the unemployed, was not the result of any short spurt of economic growth, but was the outcome of a sustained high level of growth.* Approximately 3 years of moderately high economic growth following the initial recovery from the 1960–61 recession did little to reduce unemployment. The continuation and acceleration of growth in 1964 and 1965, however, broke the pattern of previous recessions and brief "recoveries" which left unemployment at successively higher levels.

3. *Sustained economic growth requires vigorous, comprehensive, and flexible policies aimed at the coordinate objectives of price stability and full employment.* This requires that the timely and aggressive application of monetary and fiscal measures be made in coordination with manpower programs designed for and directed at both the same short-term and long-term aims of economic growth as well as the aim of social equity—

decent employment opportunities for all. It requires a variety of interrelated measures, including income maintenance programs, promotion of research and development, stimuli to public and private investment in education and training, and development of the resources which will accelerate future economic growth. Continued upgrading of workers' qualifications, continued efforts to overcome dislocations caused by technological and other changes, continued improvements in the process of matching workers and jobs, a constant program directed at preventing the drain resulting from involuntary unemployment and underemployment which stem from discrimination or deprivation—these are all part of the program with dual, yet related, objectives.

3

THE MANPOWER OUTLOOK

In the context of the enormous growth and changing character of the American economy, manpower policies must not only address themselves to surmounting current problems but must also anticipate future ones. As the country approaches full employment and manpower resources become scarcer, there is need all the more for a comprehension of the size and nature of the labor force which will be available in the future, and of the specific kinds of workers which will be required by industry.

This chapter discusses labor force projections that indicate the dimensions of labor availability, and projections of industry and occupational manpower requirements that portray the pattern of the jobs to be filled. These projections show the directions in which the population and the economy are changing and suggest the orientation which will be needed in manpower and economic policy to achieve full use of our resources. The information they provide is important also as a guide in the planning of educational and training programs and as an aid to individuals in career choice.

These projections are concerned with a high-growth-rate, full-employment economy. Full employment and rapid economic growth are not, however, objectives in themselves. They are but the indispensable means for advancing the level of living and enabling the Nation to meet its domestic needs and discharge its international responsibilities. Some preliminary information on the manpower which would be required to achieve specific social and economic goals is presented in the concluding section of the chapter.

Labor Force Growth

From 1965 to 1970 the total labor force is expected to rise by over 1½ million a year, an average annual increase nearly 50 percent greater than during the first half of the 1960's and almost double that of the fifties. By 1970, the labor force is expected to total 86 million persons, almost a fifth more than in 1960.[1] (See table 12.)

The pressures to develop appropriate jobs and to match workers with existing job openings will be

[1] The figures for 1970 are based on projections by the Department of Labor of the labor force participation rates of specific population groups under conditions of relatively high employment growth. The projections may be slightly conservative in estimating the growth that would be generated by a prolonged period of full employment. As the unemployment rate approaches 3 percent, a larger growth in labor force is probable, perhaps on the order of 400,000 additional workers. The figures in the text are for total labor force, i.e., civilian labor force (excluding the 400,000 additional worker adjustment) and the Armed Forces. The civilian labor force is projected to grow by 7.7 million over the 5-year period, to a level of 83.3 million.

A more detailed exposition of these projections is contained in the *1965 Manpower Report* (pp. 46 et seq.) and in *Labor Force Projections for 1970–80* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, February 1965), Special Labor Force Report No. 49. (See also *Monthly Labor Review*, February 1965.)

Table 12. Actual and Projected Labor Force, by Sex and Age, 1960 to 1970

[Numbers in thousands]

Sex and age	Actual		Projected, 1970	Average annual change			
				Number		Percent	
	1960	1965		1960–65	1965–70	1960–65	1965–70
Both Sexes							
14 years and over	73,081	78,357	85,999	1,055	1,528	1.4	1.9
14 to 24 years	13,697	16,832	20,303	627	694	4.2	3.8
14 and 15 years	977	1,180	1,382	41	40	3.8	3.2
16 to 19 years	5,223	6,351	7,188	226	167	4.0	2.5
20 to 24 years	7,497	9,302	11,733	361	486	4.4	4.8
Men							
25 years and over	40,832	41,187	43,214	71	405	.2	1.0
25 to 44 years	22,394	22,157	22,993	−47	167	−.2	.7
45 to 64 years	16,013	16,899	18,113	177	243	1.1	1.4
65 years and over	2,425	2,131	2,108	−59	−5	−2.6	−.2
Women							
25 years and over	18,552	20,337	22,482	357	429	1.9	2.0
25 to 44 years	9,484	10,060	10,449	115	78	1.2	.8
45 to 64 years	8,114	9,301	10,942	237	328	2.8	3.3
65 years and over	954	976	1,091	4	23	.5	2.3

Note: These projections assume the highest levels of employment consistent with recent peacetime experience and may be slightly conservative in relation to rates of labor force participation which might be generated by a prolonged period of full employment. (See also text footnote 1.)

Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

particularly critical in view of the large number of workers under 25 years of age who will be continuing to enter the labor force. The past year's expansion in the number of teenage workers is but the first wave of the oncoming tide. Overall, the total number of teenage and young adult workers (aged 14 to 24) is expected to increase by almost 700,000 a year, constituting about 45 percent of the increase in the labor force between now and 1970.

The problem becomes especially acute because the sharpest labor force growth will be among workers in their early twenties. Almost two-thirds will be young men looking mainly for full-time jobs and facing the income needs that come with marriage and family formation. From 1965 to 1970, the number of persons 20 to 24 years old in the job market will be increasing by close to 500,000 or 4.8 percent per year—2½ times the rate for the labor force as a whole. By 1970 there may be close to 12 million of these young adult workers—representing about 14 percent of the total labor force, compared with 12 percent currently and 10 percent in 1960.

The number of men aged 25 and over will also increase dramatically—after remaining about the same for many years—as those born during World War II and shortly thereafter reach this age range. Over the next 5 years their number is expected to increase by an average of 400,000 a year—a gain almost 6 times that of the first half of the 1960's.

The number of male workers aged 25 to 44, which actually dropped from 1960 to 1965, is expected to rise by an average of 170,000 a year during the next 5 years. However, within this age group, men aged 35 to 44 are expected to register a substantial decline—averaging 115,000 per year—because of the low birth rates of the early 1930's. Since this age group is normally an im-

portant source of manpower for middle management and other highly responsible and skilled jobs, the reduction in their number could result in shortages of key personnel. Stepped-up training by industry and government is called for, in order to utilize, to the maximum, the potential of this age group and to upgrade the skills of the increasing numbers of both younger and older workers who will be available to fill emerging vacancies. Between 1965 and 1970, the number of men 25 to 34 years old is expected to rise by about 280,000 per year—after no growth at all during the first half of the decade—and those 45 to 64 years old will increase by 250,000 per year, about 40 percent more than the previous 5 years.

No increase is expected, however, in the number of older men (those 65 and over) in the labor force, even though there will be more of them in the population. Their labor force participation rate is expected to continue downward, reflecting a long period of prosperity and the wider availability and increased level of retirement benefits under both public and private pension systems.

Women are expected to continue to enter the labor force in large numbers, as service and office employment as well as part-time jobs continue their long-term growth. Between 1965 and 1970 the number of women 25 years of age and over in the labor force may rise by about 430,000 per year, with more than four-fifths of this rise accounted for by women aged 45 or over. Women workers in this age group are expected to increase by about 350,000 per year—to a total of about 12 million by 1970.

Projections of Manpower Requirements in 1970

For several years the Department of Labor, in cooperation with other Government and private agencies, has been developing the means for identifying and measuring the factors influencing the composition and quantity of manpower needed for future production under varying conditions of demand. New estimates of manpower requirements in 1970 are now available, which incorporate the more advanced interindustry study techniques and procedures pioneered after World War II by the Department of Labor and developed recently by the Federal Interagency Growth Study Project.

The new projections use the latest input-output tables prepared by the Department of Commerce as the framework for the projections.[2] These tables can be used to show the direct and indirect impact of changes in demand in one part of the economy on other parts. The industry output requirements which can be derived by this method in turn provide the basis, along with projections of hours of work and industry productivity, for estimating industry employment requirements. The projections presented below are some of the preliminary findings of recent research efforts. These findings, however, show only one of many possible patterns which are consistent with high employment in 1970—others resulting from different unemployment assumptions and varying patterns of final demand, implying somewhat different industrial employment patterns, are being developed. A report covering the various projections will be released later in 1966.

An essential characteristic of the projections is that employment is directly and explicitly linked to detailed projections of demand by product and service, and industry of origin. Thus, the projected structure of demand—the demands of individuals, business, and government, and the net demands of foreign purchasers of the products of American industry—are converted by use of appropriate relationships into projections of direct and indirect manpower requirements of the specific industries.

Estimates of future manpower requirements are difficult to make with precision. Apart from the uncertainties of forecasting itself, manpower needs can be and frequently are changed dramatically and suddenly from previous projections by shifts in consumer preferences, technological changes,

[2] These projections are provisional and subject to revision as a result of review by the participating agencies and others. For more information on the Federal Interagency Growth Study Project and the application of the input-output approach to current problems of manpower utilization, see Jack Alterman, "Interindustry Employment Requirements," and "Studies of Long-Term Economic Growth," *Monthly Labor Review*, July and August 1965, pp. 841–850 and 983–987.

and worldwide political and economic developments. In addition to these considerations, the manpower requirements for 1970 presented in this section, like all projections, are based on a number of critical assumptions which, if they do not develop as predicted, can materially affect the accuracy of the estimates.[3] The virtue of the present technique is that detailed alternative projections of manpower requirements can be readily made, based on a different pattern of economic development than that presently assumed.

THE PATTERN OF EMPLOYMENT IN 1970

As a result of the acceleration in labor force growth, it is estimated that the economy would have to grow at an annual rate of about 4½ percent over the next 5 years to provide jobs for the additional workers, assuming continued increases in productivity, moderate declines in hours of work, and a reduction in the unemployment rate to about 3 percent. While this average rate of economic growth is lower than that actually achieved during the past 2 years (5¼ percent), it is much higher than the average of 3¾ percent per year for the whole period since 1947. The implied growth rate of the economy over the next 5 years would mean an increase of about 25 percent in the Nation's real output of goods and services.

It should be noted that a slightly lower growth rate—about 4 percent per year—will be sufficient to keep unemployment at a constant rate. Such a growth rate would still be substantially higher than the postwar average.

In order to achieve an overall unemployment rate of 3 percent by 1970, under assumptions of the projections, total civilian employment would have to be about 81 million, or about 12½ percent higher than in 1965. Against this overall rise, some divergent industry trends are expected.

Agricultural employment is projected to continue its long-term decline, offset by sharp increases in nonagricultural employment. Most of the increase in the nonagricultural area will be in wage and salary employment, with lesser rates of increase in the self-employed, unpaid family workers and domestics. The estimates which are shown in table 13 refer to total agricultural employment and to wage and salary jobs in nonfarm industries.

[3] These assumptions are summarized in the section Demand Patterns in 1970.

TABLE 13. ACTUAL AND PROJECTED EMPLOYMENT BY INDUSTRY DIVISION, 1965 AND 1970

[Numbers in thousands]

Industry division	Actual, 1965 [1]	Projected, 1970 [2]	Change, 1965–70	
			Number	Percent
Agriculture	4, 585	4, 080	−505	−11. 0
Nonagricultural industries, total [3]	60, 432	68, 743	8, 311	13. 8
Mining	628	586	−42	−6. 7
Contract construction	3, 211	3, 700	489	15. 2
Manufacturing	17, 984	18, 882	898	5. 0
Transportation and public utilities	4, 031	4, 106	75	1. 9
Trade	12, 585	14, 195	1, 610	12. 8
Finance, insurance, and real estate	3, 043	3, 494	451	14. 8
Service and miscellaneous	8, 903	11, 097	2, 194	24. 6
Government	10, 046	12, 683	2, 637	26. 2
Federal [4]	2, 379	2, 524	145	6. 1
State and local	7, 667	10, 159	2, 492	32. 5

[1] Preliminary.

[2] Based on an assumption of 3 percent unemployment.

[3] Data relate to wage and salary workers on establishment payrolls and exclude self-employed, unpaid family workers and domestics.

[4] Data relate to civilian employment only, excluding Central Intelligence and National Security Agencies.

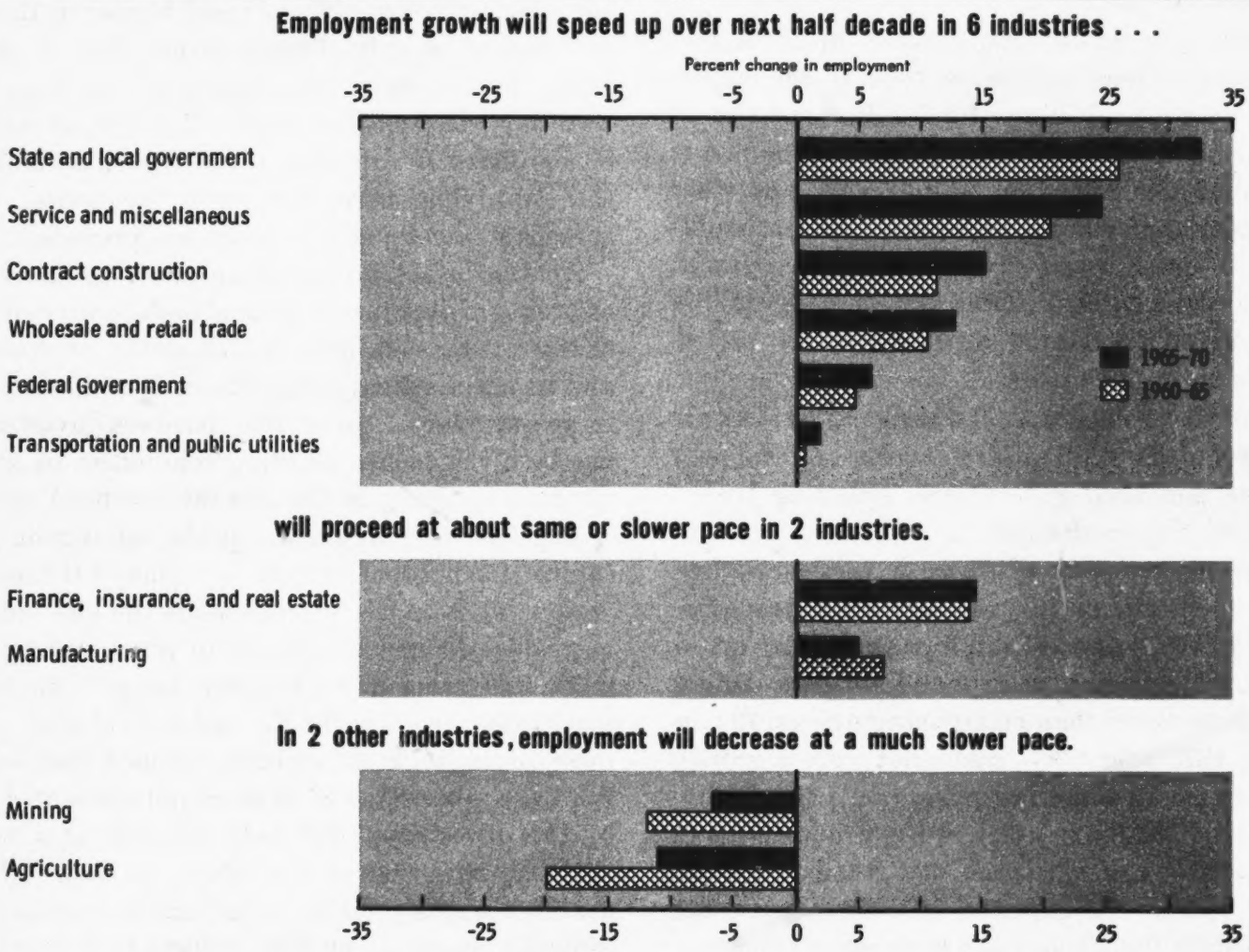
NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

EMPLOYMENT TRENDS IN NONFARM INDUSTRIES

Within the nonagricultural sector of the economy, wage and salary employment is expected to rise by more than 8 million by 1970, to a level 14 percent higher than in 1965. Much more rapid gains are expected in the service-generating industries than in the goods-producing activities, basically an extension of the longrun postwar trends.

A key question is whether the expanding employment opportunities for workers in goods-producing industries—particularly manufacturing—in the past 2 years will persist. The projections of manpower requirements support neither a continuation of the current high rate of growth, nor a return to the trend of little or no employment increase of a few years ago. Recent increases in manufacturing employment reflect both expansion in aggregate demand and special factors affecting the character of this demand—notably, the very large rate of increase in expenditures for automobiles and other consumer durables as well as unprecedented growth in capital investment. While these expenditures are not expected to grow as they have in the past 2 years, they are expected to continue to contribute to the overall increase, but at a more moderate pace. As a result, manufacturing wage and salary employment is expected to be about 900,000 higher in 1970 than in 1965, rising at a rate significantly below that of nonagricultural industries as a whole. (See table 13 and chart 10.) Additional projections are being developed based

Chart 10 **Percent change in employment, by industry, 1960-65, and projected 1965-70**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

on alternative assumptions about the growth in demand for consumer durables and plant and equipment. These alternatives will be included in a report to be issued later in 1966.

Employment in contract construction is projected to show the largest percentage increase of any major goods-producing industry as a result of projected increases in construction activity to meet rising State and local government needs, increased housing requirements, and expanding business investment in plant.

Mining employment—already at a low level because of years of high productivity and other structural factors—is expected to decline, although more slowly than since World War II.

The complex of service-producing industries present the brightest expectations for employment growth. Between now and 1970, total employment in these industries is expected to increase by 18 percent, raising its share of total nonagricultural wage and salary employment from 64 percent in 1965 to 66 percent in 1970.

Within this sector, employment in State and local governments is expected to show the largest increase—a net addition of 2.5 million jobs or 33 percent above the 1965 level. Most of the rise is associated with education, medical care, and other services to the growing population, with stimulus in some areas from Great Society programs. On the other hand, Federal Government civilian employment is expected to increase only moderately from its 1965 total.

Business, professional, and personal services are expected to show a 2 million increase, second only to State and local government, reflecting both a continued rise in demand as well as lower-than-average productivity advances in these activities.

Employment in trade, second only to manufacturing in terms of total employment among major nonfarm industries, is expected to grow almost three times faster than manufacturing—up 13 percent in 1970 over 1965, compared with a growth of 5 percent in manufacturing. In part this reflects the difficulty in accelerating productivity in the operations of wholesale and retail trade, but it also reflects the expected growth in consumer standards in the whole array of personal consumption expenditures. As a result of these factors, wholesale and retail establishments are expected to provide about one-fifth of the total expected increase in nonagricultural employment by 1970.

Employment in the finance, insurance, and real estate group is also expected to rise, at a rate slightly more than that in trade. However, because of its relatively small size, the total amount of additional employment will only be slightly more than one-fourth the growth in trade.

Although the output of the transportation, communications, and utilities industries is expected to increase sharply, rapid increases in productivity will prevent more than a small increase in employment over 1965 levels in the industry group as a whole.

DEMAND PATTERNS IN 1970

In interpreting these industry employment estimates, it is important to keep in mind a number of assumptions that underlie them. One is that no large-scale military buildup will take place. Accordingly, the size of the Armed Forces in 1970 is assumed to be only slightly larger than in early 1965. In the event of a large-scale buildup, the resulting patterns of employment would, of course, be significantly different, especially in several of the supplying industries—steel, ordnance, and aerospace, among others—than are projected.

Another crucial assumption concerns the level of business investment—crucial both because of the characteristic volatility of this sector of demand and its extraordinary importance in total demand in recent years. Since 1961 business investment has been the fastest growing component of gross national product; in 1966, its ratio to total output is expected to surpass the peaks set during the capital goods boom of 1956–57. One of the major uncertainties in the projections is the question of how much longer investment in plant and equipment will continue to increase faster than total production, as it has for the past several years. In these projections, it has been assumed that, after 1966, the proportion of total output accounted for by this investment will hold constant at a ratio slightly above that of the 1956–57 period. Other models currently under investigation contain alternative assumptions with respect to investment growth and implications for future industrial and occupational employment.

The size and composition of the population will have a marked effect on a number of industries. For example, residential construction is expected to grow more rapidly than the economy as a whole in order to provide housing for the growing number of families anticipated by 1970, as postwar babies grow up and start families of their own.

Personal consumption expenditures—the largest component of national output—are expected to increase in line with total output, but the composition should change over the next 5 years, reflecting a reversal of recent trends and resuming the features of the longer term postwar trends toward increased services. This is expected to enhance employment opportunities in services and other nonmanufacturing industries. The persistent strength in consumer durables, particularly in automobiles over the past several years, nevertheless requires that more attention be devoted to the possibility that changes are occurring in long-term consumer buying patterns. This possibility is also being evaluated in alternative models now under consideration.

The course of government expenditures is expected to maintain the present sharp distinction between Federal purchases of goods and services and those of State and local government units. The latter are expected to increase substantially faster than any other component of final demand, reflecting further urbanization of the population and rapid growth in all types of local services—particularly in education, health, and other programs designed to raise the living standards of our citizens.

On the other hand, Federal purchases of goods and services are expected to decline as a percent of gross national product, although their level may be somewhat higher than in 1965. It should be noted, however, that Federal purchases do not include the cost of many Federal programs designed to expand education and health services, worker training, and other antipoverty programs, which may be substantially expanded by 1970. Funds for many of these programs are spent at the State and local level or by individuals and are classified in the national income and product accounts as purchases by State and local governments or consumer expenditures. Purchases by the Federal Government, nevertheless, can be dramatically changed if international developments require altered defense expenditures.

TABLE 14. ACTUAL AND PROJECTED EMPLOYMENT BY MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP, 1965 AND 1970

[Numbers in millions]

Major occupation group	Actual, 1965	Projected, 1970 [1]	Change, 1965–70 [2]	
			Number	Percent
Total [3]	72.2	81.2	9.0	12.5
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	8.9	11.1	2.2	25.0
Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm	7.3	8.4	1.1	14.4
Clerical and kindred workers	11.2	13.2	2.0	18.2
Sales workers	4.7	5.3	.6	12.4
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	9.2	10.4	1.2	12.8
Operatives and kindred workers	13.4	14.2	.8	6.0
Laborers, except farm and mine	3.9	3.7	−.2	[4] −4.0
Service workers	9.3	11.0	1.7	17.7
Farmers and farm managers, laborers, and foremen	4.3	3.9	−.4	−8.6

[1] Based on an assumption of 3 percent unemployment.

[2] Based on 1965 data in thousands.

[3] Represents employment as covered by the monthly household survey of the labor force.

[4] Employment is projected at about the level of the past decade; however, because 1965 employment was unusually high, reflecting an abnormally sharp increase in manufacturing, the projected change from 1965 indicates an apparent decline.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

PROJECTIONS OF OCCUPATIONAL EMPLOYMENT REQUIREMENTS

As a part of its continuing program of research on future occupational requirements, the Department of Labor has reexamined its previous occupational projections for indications of new directions in the pattern of job growth. The current review is especially significant because occupational trends in the past few years have shown some divergence from the long-term postwar trends. The occupational projections here presented are compatible with the industry employment projections discussed in the previous section.

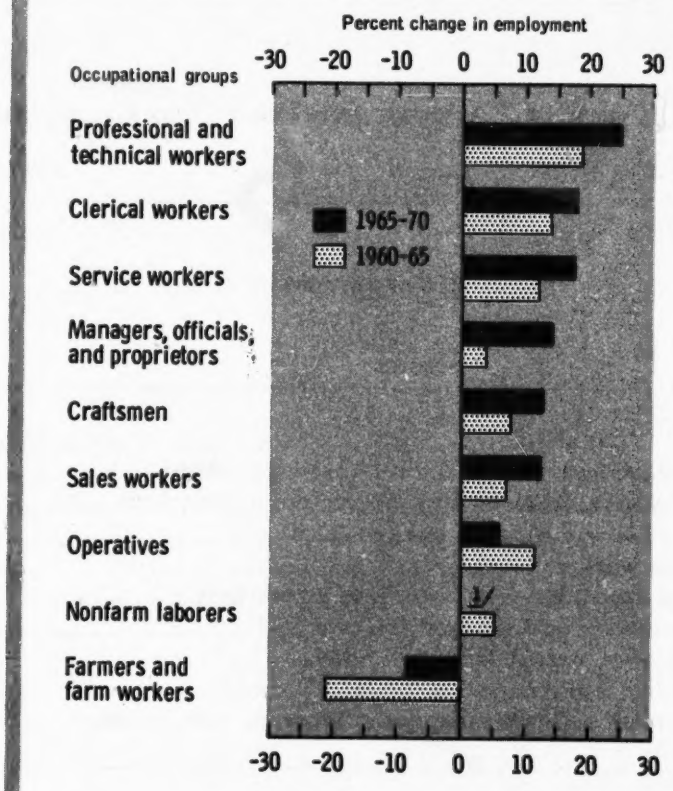
In general, the new estimates agree with previous projections for the occupational groups. Of fundamental importance is the conclusion that the fastest growing occupations during the second half of the present decade will continue to be those in the professional and technical, clerical, and service worker categories. (See table 14 and chart 11.) Growth in the various occupational groups is expected to continue to reflect the increasing service orientation of demand in our highly developed economy. Projections of more detailed occupational divisions of the work force are expected to be available later this year.

In the 1965–70 period, professional, technical, and kindred occupations will continue to be the most rapidly growing field. In 1970, these occupations are expected to require about 11 million workers—representing an increase of about one-fourth over 1965 and a rate of gain twice that for employment generally. The need for increasing numbers of highly trained and educated professional workers is abundantly evident. Growth in research and development, a hallmark of the postwar period, can be expected to demand ever-rising numbers of experts in many professional and technical disciplines. In addition, greater numbers of city planners, engineers, and architects will be needed to rebuild and redesign blighted areas of many of our major metropolitan centers. Talents of a wide range of social scientists will be used to redeem human resources in these cities. Many more teachers will be needed. Among the other occupations due for major increases are those involving personnel necessary to implement the new Medicare program and other programs developed by Federal, State and local government agencies to improve the health of the Nation's citizens.

The expected increase in demand for highly trained and educated personnel will require the development of a strong supporting base of technicians and subprofessional workers. Thus, there should be, over the next 5 years, an unparalleled opportunity not only to upgrade many now working below their potential but to free professional personnel for more challenging and creative duties.

Clerical workers, the largest single category in white-collar employment, constitute the second fastest growing occupational category and will number 13 million in 1970. The ultimate growth rate of these workers will undoubtedly be affected by the rapid technological developments in the fields of computers, office equipment, and communication devices. Whether the effect of these technological improvements will in time retard clerical employment growth or whether the demand for processing the increased information becoming

Chart 11 **Employment growth in most occupations will speed up over next half decade.**



1/ 1965-70 employment of nonfarm laborers is projected at about the absolute level of the past decade.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

available through these improvements will accentuate growth in their ranks is yet to be fully determined.

Service workers—whose numbers cover a wide variety of workers such as policemen, barbers, waiters, and hospital orderlies—will increase almost as fast as clerical workers. Demand for service workers will continue to expand rapidly as more and more are needed to supply the many and increasing services associated with a growing and more affluent population. These gains will also in part be stimulated by the implementation of many of the new programs of the Great Society in such areas as medical and hospital functions and others providing services to the disadvantaged. Many of these jobs will provide entry into employment for the inexperienced, while others will afford long-term employment for workers of limited training and education. In 1970, there will be an anticipated 11 million service jobs, over a sixth more than in 1965.

The number of nonfarm managers, officials, and proprietors is expected to increase at a rate slightly more than that for all workers during the years 1965–70, reaching almost 8½ million by 1970. This growth rate is more than triple their rate of increase in the first half of the decade. As new programs in the public and private sectors gather momentum in the next few years, the demand for managerial personnel is likely to expand—increasing 1 million by 1970. The self-employed, a significant proportion of this group, can also expect new opportunities in service and trade establishments, although the trend toward larger companies and the replacement of small firms by large ones may roughly balance the increased opportunities for the self-employed businessman.

Sales workers are also expected to increase at about the same rate as all workers, but because of their relatively small numbers they will contribute only about 600,000 new workers to the total employed ranks by 1970. The anticipated expansion of trade should increase the demand for sales personnel—particularly for part-time employment opportunities—but changing techniques in merchandising may hold down some of the increase.

Manual nonfarm occupations—which include craftsmen, foremen, operatives, and nonfarm laborers—have had a dramatic upsurge in employment over the past few years. This has been coincident with strong demands for consumer durables—particularly automobiles—and business investment in equipment and plant facilities. As discussed earlier, the present projections assume that the rate of increase in both consumer and investment expenditures will be somewhat below the present high levels by 1970.

Over the next 5 years, employment of craftsmen is expected to increase at the same rate as employment generally. In other words, a total rise of over 1 million in the number of skilled workers is anticipated by 1970. Mechanics and repairmen, building trades craftsmen, and foremen will be the fastest growing groups of craftsmen. The need to insure commensurate training programs for skilled occupations—with their long training periods—is obvious.

Only modest employment increases are expected for operatives during the second half of the decade. Employment in these semiskilled jobs is expected to increase by about 6 percent—800,000 jobs—compared with almost 12 percent in the past 5 years. Little change in the number of nonfarm laborers is anticipated during the 1965–70 period, but this occupational group will continue to decrease as a proportion of total employment.

Farmworkers are the only major occupational group expected to have a significant decline in employment. The implications of this decline for farm people, both young and old, and the programs needed to help them are discussed in the chapter on Farmworkers.

Manpower Requirements To Achieve National Goals

The preceding industry and occupational projections were aimed at quantifying the probable magnitude of the labor supply and of the demand for manpower in 1970 under the assumption that full employment would be realized. This section is also concerned with projections of future manpower requirements, but it analyzes them from a very different standpoint—namely, what would be required for the achievement by 1975 of an illustrative set of national goals designed to provide

overall improvement in the pattern of American life.[4]

This kind of analysis becomes increasingly pertinent as the successful blending of monetary, fiscal, and manpower policies gives evidence of a significant breakthrough in the country's ability to realize full production and employment on a continuing basis. As we approach full use of our physical and manpower resources, special attention needs to be given to directing their utilization to more specific economic and social goals.

In 1960, the President's Commission on National Goals listed a series of goals in 15 areas of national activity.[5] These were increased to 16 in 1961, with the addition of our national objectives in space exploration. Later, the needs in each of these areas and standards for their achievement were formulated by the National Planning Association from special studies, legislative hearings, legislation, and general national policy. The standards set for the goals also reflected current developments in each area, and represented levels of achievement regarded as reasonable and within reach on the basis of present knowledge and in a free enterprise system.

The present study of the manpower implications of these goals was undertaken for the Department of Labor by the National Planning Association. It is an exploratory effort designed to be suggestive of the manpower requirements implied in an illustrative set of national objectives, and is but one of many patterns which could be studied. Such a study is particularly appropriate at the present time, because of the development of the Great Society programs whose purpose is to accelerate social and economic progress.

The following are the areas for which manpower requirements are being studied.

1. Agriculture
2. Area redevelopment
3. Consumer expenditures and savings
4. Education
5. Health
6. Housing
7. International aid
8. Manpower retraining
9. National defense
10. Natural resources
11. Private plant and equipment
12. Research and development
13. Social welfare
14. Space
15. Transportation
16. Urban development

[4] The information presented in this section is based on preliminary unpublished data from a study being conducted by the National Planning Association for the Department of Labor.

[5] See *Goals for Americans*, the report of the President's Commission on National Goals, 1960.

Some of the goals (e.g., those related to consumer expenditures or housing) are directly concerned with individual well-being, while others (such as those related to public health, manpower training, and education) are aimed at removing the adverse effects of inadequate care and inadequate preparation for contemporary life. Still others (for example, the increase in investment in private plant and equipment) will make their contribution by increasing productive capacity to provide the additional physical output needed for achieving other goals.

The manpower aspects of this set of goals—that is, the amount and quality of manpower needed to achieve them—take as their point of departure a previous analysis which estimated the money costs in 1975 of the achievement of these goals.[6] This analysis of the dollar costs established that the simultaneous achievement by 1975 of the formulated goals would require a gross national product of somewhat more than a trillion dollars in 1962 prices—over $100 billion more than was estimated as possible in a virtually full employment economy, with a growth rate slightly above 4 percent a year. Thus, the Nation's potential output would be sufficient to realize, by 1975, most but not all objectives of the national goals in the areas cited previously.

Consistent with this finding, studies now being conducted for the Department of Labor indicate that to achieve the full goals standard, more manpower would also be needed than is anticipated will be available in 1975—assuming that labor productivity will rise at 3 percent a year, in line with postwar trends.

Preliminary results of the study indicate that the full achievement of the postulated aspiration goals in 1975 would require an employed civilian labor force of more than 100 million—over 10 million above the expected number at full employment. This means that while our manpower resources will be adequate to enable us to make considerable progress in the next decade, they will not, in all likelihood, be sufficient to achieve all the objectives included in the present aspiration goals simultaneously, and that consequently, choices will have to be made based on an assessment of resources, costs, and benefits.

The study will eventually provide manpower information for virtually all of the 16 individual

[6] See Leonard Lecht, *The Dollar Cost of Our National Goals* (Washington: National Planning Association, 1965).

TABLE 15. PROJECTED MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS FOR FULL ACHIEVEMENT OF SOCIAL WELFARE AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT GOALS IN 1975

[Thousands]

Major occupation group	Social welfare goal [1]	Urban development goal [2]
Total	8,442	10,175
Professional and technical workers	1,438	922
Managers, officials and proprietors, except farm	890	1,289
Clerical workers	1,366	1,227
Sales workers	563	350
Craftsmen and foremen	748	2,997
Operatives	1,164	1,896
Private household workers	252	----------
Other service workers	1,171	428
Farmers and farm laborers	526	128
Laborers, except farm and mine	324	938

[1] Provides for adequate income maintenance programs against old age, illness, disability, loss of family breadwinner, or unemployment. Includes expansion of coverage of present public and private social insurance programs plus a family allowance system for families with poverty incomes. Involves an increase in public and private social welfare expenditures (in 1962 dollars) from $38 billion in 1962 to $92 billion in 1975.

[2] Provides for adequate metropolitan transportation systems, housing, cultural and recreation facilities, schools and hospitals, industrial and commercial buildings, and public buildings and utilities. Also provides for control of air and water pollution. Involves an increase in public and private expenditures—largely private—from $64 billion in 1962 to $130 billion (in 1962 dollars) in 1975.

NOTE: The manpower requirements for each goal reflect both the direct and indirect employment resulting throughout the economy from the expenditures for full achievement of the goals.

SOURCE: National Planning Association.

goals, but at present the data are available for only 2—the social welfare and urban development goals (see table 15). This information is an example of the kind of manpower data which will ultimately be available from the study. The data give an indication of the manpower resources needed and the employment opportunities made available for different occupational groups through the pursuit of the individual goals. For example, if fully achieved, the urban development goal would generate roughly 10 million jobs—2 million more than the social welfare goal. Pursuit of the urban development goal would also generate many more employment opportunities for blue-collar workers, i.e., craftsmen, operatives, and laborers, than the social welfare goal.

It is characteristic of our Nation to set its sights high—to adopt objectives which may be beyond immediate attainment but may nevertheless be a spur to progress greater than would have been considered possible with more modest aspirations. The need to recognize priorities if we are to pursue the various goals is apparent. But manpower information reflecting the labor requirements of all the goals is needed before alternative combinations capable of achievement can be analyzed.

As in the past, where and how the Nation assigns its priorities will be determined in part by market decisions of consumers, business firms, and trade unions and in part by political decisions through legislation enacted at all levels of government. The manpower study now underway can contribute significantly to these decisions through the information developed on the manpower requirements of the individual goals, and on the implications of vigorous pursuit of these various national objectives for the employment of certain groups within the labor force. Better information on the manpower needs and consequences of the implied program choices can thus make for more rational and effective action to achieve agreed-upon national objectives within our system of political and economic freedom.

In summary, the preliminary findings of the study thus far suggest that:

1. There is need for information on the manpower requirements of these goals so that public and private actions to achieve them can be chosen and planned in full knowledge of the constraints and opportunities associated with each goal.

2. So long as goals such as these represent the objectives of the Nation in the coming decade, the problem for the economy is likely to be an insufficiency rather than a surplus of manpower. Resulting manpower problems, therefore, are likely to be those associated with upgrading education, better utilization of existing manpower potential, and improved mobility, rather than the issues posed by a high rate of unemployment and underemployment.

3. Substantial progress toward achieving these goals will likewise create more and better job opportunities for the country's unutilized and underutilized manpower resources, especially nonwhites, teenagers, older workers, the handicapped, and some who are not now in the labor force.

4

THE HIDDEN COSTS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Twenty years ago, the Congress by a large majority passed the Employment Act of 1946, which made achievement of high levels of employment a national objective. The passage of this act underscored the conviction of the American people that the high human and social costs of unemployment require the intervention of the Federal Government, to prevent depressions and to speed the expansion of employment and incomes.

Today, the country stands closer to attainment of the act's objectives than at any time since the Korean war—with employment at record heights and the rate of unemployment down to 4 percent at the start of 1966. The anatomy of the recent growth in employment and of the decline in unemployment, and the broad monetary and fiscal policies and more specific manpower policies responsible for these developments, are considered earlier in this report.[1]

The recent progress toward full employment is extremely encouraging. But the continuing national failure to fully attain this goal and the heavy costs this failure imposes on large numbers of workers and their families and on the country generally must be recognized also. In this period of emerging skill shortages, with the consequent possibility of inflationary pressures, our economy can ill afford the waste involved in unused or underutilized human resources. And still less can our society afford the consequences entailed for individuals. Until the objective of maximum employment is reached, an affluent and humane society is obligated to pursue policies and programs that will bring its realization steadily closer—by means consistent with the further national objective of cost and price stability.

The nearer the economy approaches full employment, the more difficult becomes the achievement and the higher the price of continued progress. In general, those workers easy to employ are now at work (or unemployed for short periods while moving from one job to another). To achieve full employment of the hard-to-employ will require intensive efforts to overcome barriers and handicaps of many kinds—geographic mismatching of workers and jobs, lack of education and training, deep-rooted social and cultural deprivation, physical and mental handicaps, and discrimination in manifold forms.[2]

The very fact of progress in reducing unemployment puts the country's manpower policy to what may be its sternest test. Success in meeting this test will depend, in considerable measure, on the general estimate of the urgency for action—on a knowledge of the costs involved not merely in undertaking remedial policies and programs but also of *not* undertaking such actions, and of the probable cost and effectiveness of alternative approaches.

[1] See Review of Current Developments.

[2] For a discussion of current programs to increase employment of the hard-to-employ, see the chapter on Unused Manpower Resources and Their Development.

A long start toward satisfactory appraisal of the economic costs of unemployment has been made possible by the substantial advances in national income accounting during the past several decades, which enable economists to assess key changes in the economy in dollar terms. Substantial gains have been registered also in manpower accounting as it bears on employment, underemployment, and unemployment. But neither national income nor manpower accounting provides an adequate basis for analysis of the full costs of unemployment to the individual or the community.

The present effort is focused on another category of costs so far largely unexplored—the many human and social costs associated with society's failure to make optimal use of its human resources. This is a difficult task, because relatively little effort has been directed either toward conceptualizing the complex facets of unemployment and the relationships between unemployment and other critical social problems or toward developing the relevant data.

Two further difficulties in tracing the human and social costs of unemployment must be noted at the outset of this analysis and kept in view throughout. On the one hand, unemployment covers a wide spectrum of individual situations, having very different economic and social implications. Short-term, transitional unemployment is obviously of lesser concern from the viewpoint of social and human costs than recurrent and long-term joblessness, although the available data seldom permit such distinctions in analysis of these costs.

On the other hand, unemployment is closely related to underemployment, delayed entrance into and premature exit from the labor force, inadequate individual and family income, and limited or nonexistent provisions for economic security. A full evaluation of the consequences of unemployment must include consideration of these related conditions.

Many of the analytical data available refer not to unemployment specifically but to low income or poverty. They are relevant for the purposes of this exploratory analysis because poverty is so often a consequence of the forms of unemployment and underutilization of manpower of chief concern here—long-continued and repeated unemployment, persistent underemployment, and withdrawal from the labor force owing to lack of employment opportunities.

For all of these reasons, the findings emerging from this analysis of the costs of unemployment must be considered as suggestive only. They are aimed primarily at raising questions and pointing to where answers may be found. Satisfactory answers must await further conceptualization and the systematic collection and analysis of relevant data.

The plan of this chapter can be stated briefly: it begins with a consideration of the relationship of unemployment to other forms of underutilization of manpower and then reviews the interrelationships between unemployment, loss of income, and poverty. Next it delineates what unemployment does to people and then assesses what is known about the social correlates of unemployment. The final sections deal with an approach to estimating the social costs of unemployment and the need for strengthening of information on these costs.

Unemployment and Underutilization of Manpower

In times of high unemployment, pervasive but often unappreciated barriers stand in the way of people who would like to enter the work force or to seek more regular or better paid employment. With the economic and employment upturn in 1965, there was a lowering of these barriers. The number of people in the work force rose by 1.4 million above the 1964 figure, while unemployment decreased by 400,000. A drop of 250,000 also occurred in the number working part time involuntarily, for reasons such as slack work or inability to find a full-time job.

As the 1965 experience suggests, the size of the labor force is related, directly and indirectly, to changing levels of unemployment and expansion of job opportunities. The great numbers of new workers who joined the labor force last year were certainly attracted in part by the increasingly favorable job market situation.

Evidence of the impact of unemployment on the

labor force in years when unemployment levels were higher comes from a study of 100 metropolitan areas in 1950 and 1960. This study found that, in both years, the level of unemployment in the community significantly affected labor force participation rates. The "rates of teenage males and males aged 65 years and older were much the most sensitive to unemployment; married women and teenage girls constituted a middle group in this regard; and, as we would expect, the participation rates of prime-age males were least influenced by unemployment conditions." [3] The same study noted a rise in the depressive effect of unemployment on labor force participation from 1940 to 1960: ". . . whereas in 1940 an unemployment rate 1 percent above average was associated with an overall participation rate about ¼ of 1 percent below average, in 1960 an unemployment rate of 1 percent above average was associated with an overall participation rate about ¾ of 1 percent below average." [4]

More recent evidence that the high rate of unemployment among young men has tended to discourage them from looking for jobs is provided by the considerable number not in school and not in the labor force in 1964. The unemployment rate for male out-of-school youth aged 16 to 21 was 11.9 percent.[5] This rate would have been raised by perhaps a fifth or more had allowance been made for those not seeking employment but nevertheless able and willing to work if jobs were available.

Many women, particularly married women, are increasingly interested in holding down a part-time or full-time job for part or all of the year. The extent to which they are able to do so depends in some measure on the employment situation in their communities, as well as on many other factors. The same general situation holds for handicapped persons as well as for older persons who, though they may have retired, would prefer in many cases to return to part- or full-time employment.

Relatively high levels of unemployment have also contributed to reducing the labor force participation of certain vulnerable groups. Although the absolute numbers are small, there was after the Korean war a marked increase in the proportion of nonwhite males aged 25 to 54 not in the labor force, as the poorly educated and unskilled among the nonwhite population experienced increasing difficulties in gaining and holding a job. The study providing this information concluded that the withdrawal of these men from the labor force was due primarily to "the effect of . . . lack of employment opportunities, discrimination, mental or physical disabilities, and cultural and educational handicaps." [6]

Another facet of this problem is revealed by the fact that from 1961 to 1965 about 1¼ million men—white and nonwhite—between the ages of 62 and 64 availed themselves of the 1961 amendments to the Social Security Act which enabled them to qualify for reduced benefits at age 62. About three-fifths of those who filed for such benefits in 1962 were not employed at the time. About half of this group had not worked for at least the previous 6 months; a fourth, for 2 years or longer.[7]

Slippage out of the labor force may be considerably greater than the official data reveal. A special study suggested that perhaps as many as 1.8 million men aged 15 to 64 were not counted in the 1960 census. Over 900,000 of these were nonwhite.[8] Though several factors contributed to this undercount, a good many of the men who were missed were not part of a household and were without any customary living arrangement—drifters who, it may be assumed, are often out of work. There is every reason to believe that the reported unemployment rates understate significantly the true rates among those groups in the population that have loose social and economic ties to the larger community.

These several bodies of data underscore the way in which relatively high levels of unemployment operate to delay the entrance into the labor force of young persons who are out of school and speed the exit from the labor force of men who are still within the conventional or even prime working age

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[3] William G. Bowen and T.A. Finegan, "Labor Force Participation and Unemployment," *Employment Policy and the Labor Market*, ed. Arthur M. Ross (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1965), p. 147.

[4] Ibid., p. 148.

[5] Thomas E. Swanstrom, *Employment of School Age Youth, October 1964* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, July 1965), Special Labor Force Report No. 55, p. 854.

[6] *Unused Manpower: The Nation's Loss* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, November 1965), Manpower Research Bulletin No. 10 (advance printing), p. 3.

[7] Ibid., p. 9.

[8] Donald S. Akers, *Estimating Net Census Undercount in 1960 Using Analytical Techniques*, paper presented at the May 1962 annual meeting of the Population Association of America (New York: Population Association of America, May 1962).

brackets. Moreover, they help to point up the difficulty of collecting reliable information about underutilization of manpower because of the slippage out of the labor force.

A third group that is severely affected when unemployment rises are those who are employed part time but would prefer full-time work. Even in prosperous 1965, 3 percent of the persons at work in nonagricultural industries—1.9 million people—and 6 percent of the farmworkers—representing approximately 281,000 people—reported a desire to work full time but an inability to do so for economic reasons.

In addition, a large amount of underemployment may be disguised as self-employment. The Manpower Development and Training Act specified that farmworkers whose family income was no more than $1,200 annually were to be eligible for training, underscoring the need of many of the self-employed to secure training for a job that might eventually pay them living wages. The heads of approximately 450,000 of the 575,000 farm families in the United States with family income of under $1,500 in 1963 were farm owners or managers.[9] The opportunity for these impoverished families to escape from underemployment and poverty depends in large measure on job opportunities in urban centers. There are also over 6 million self-employed in nonagricultural industries, many of whom desire an opportunity to change their work. Whether or not they will have opportunities also depends primarily on a low level of urban unemployment.

The challenge to manpower policy implicit in this analysis is clear: The unused manpower resources which could and should be tapped to meet the economy's need for workers include not only those counted as unemployed but many outside the labor force who want and need work, and others who, though they desire to change jobs and acquire new skills so as to be more productive, are unable to do so. A major aim of manpower policy must be to achieve fuller development of these human resources and to overcome the barriers which now hamper their employment.

Unemployment and Income

The work a man does largely determines his income and in turn the standard of living of his family. Work also provides individuals with important social and psychological gratifications, considerations that will be explored later. The present focus is on the relation of work to income—more specifically, on the impact of the loss of work and loss of income on the individual and his family.

A sample study of financial adjustments to unemployment, carried out some years ago by the National Bureau of Economic Research in cooperation with the U.S. Department of Labor, found that unemployment compensation replaced only about 30 percent of the loss of household income by unemployed workers. How did the unemployed adjust to the remainder of the reduction? Primarily by reducing their consumption (70 percent), by drawing on past savings (20 percent), and by going into debt (about 10 percent). They economized most with respect to their expenditures for food. The longer they were unemployed, the more they had to rely on cutting consumption, since they had earlier used up their savings and borrowing power.[10]

This study concerned only the unemployed who had worked in jobs covered by unemployment insurance—and 1 of every 4 wage and salary jobs is not covered. For this and other reasons, only 3 of every 8 unemployed workers actually received compensation in 1964. Almost half of those who drew benefits received less than half their previous wage, and about one-fourth exhausted their benefits before finding another job.

If a worker has been able to accumulate a reasonable amount of savings, if he experiences only a short spell of unemployment, and if, further, he

[9] *Low-Income Families and Unrelated Individuals in the United States: 1963* (Washington: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, June 18, 1965), Current Population Reports P–60, No. 45, table 4, p. 18.

[10] Philip A. Klein, *Financial Adjustments to Unemployment* (New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, 1965), Occasional Paper 93.

receives unemployment compensation amounting to about half of his normal wages, he may be able to cope with unemployment without too much stress or strain. But what of the large numbers who have long spells of unemployment or frequent spells, who have little or no savings to fall back on, who are not in covered employment and therefore receive no compensation?

The speed with which unemployment can destroy the economic independence of certain individuals and families is illuminated by a 1961 study. Families with a member (not necessarily the head) unemployed between 5 and 26 weeks were forced in 6 percent of the cases to seek cash welfare payments, and in 9 percent, to seek other types of welfare assistance;[11] some families received both. Altogether, probably at least 1 out of 10 of the families faced with such a spell of unemployment lost their independence and became welfare recipients.

From Unemployment to Poverty

Concern with unemployment stems from many sources but none more important than the fact that in our society adults capable of working are supposed to support themselves and their dependents by their employment. Most employed persons can stand on their own feet; the unemployed may become and even remain dependent. But the distinctions between work and independence on the one hand and unemployment and poverty on the other are not always clear cut. Many individuals and families each year move toward a higher or lower status on the broad continuum between a job and adequate income and underemployment or unemployment and poverty. In the last few years, the predominant direction of movement has fortunately been upward.

The following examples are a warning against simplistic categories. About 9,000 families in New York City alone were on welfare in 1964, although the head of the household worked full time.[12] A low wage often spells poverty, especially for a man who has a large number of children. But unemployment, particularly a long spell of unemployment, also propels families into poverty.

About 1 out of every 5 men who was the head of a poor family was unemployed and looking for work at some time during 1963, including a few who could not find any work at all during the year.[13] And many more of these men were out of the labor force, because of illness or disability, retirement or other reasons. (See table 16.) The proportion looking for work was lower among women heads of poor families, who often had to stay home and look after their families despite their need for additional income. It was also lower among poor people living alone, about half of whom were past normal retirement age (65 years).

Unemployment is also linked to poverty through the difficulty workers have, when jobs are scarce, in finding full-time work year round or earning enough to support their families. One out of every 10 male heads of poor families who had any work during 1963 worked at a part-time job, as did 2 of every 5 of the women.

Most of the family heads who were employed had worked at full-time jobs throughout the year, but generally in occupations with low income levels. Nearly half of the men were farmers, service workers, or laborers. In addition, fewer of these poor families than of those above the poverty line

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[11] Robert L. Stein, *Work History, Attitudes, and Income of the Unemployed* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, December 1963), Special Labor Force Report No. 37, p. 1413.

[12] *The Welfarer* (New York: The City of New York, Department of Welfare, April 1965), 1964 Annual Report, table 2, p. 9.

[13] For source, see table 16. The income standards on which these estimates are based are geared to the "economy" food plan devised by the U.S. Department of Agriculture to provide a nutritionally adequate diet for "temporary or emergency use when funds are low." In January 1964, the foods in this plan cost $4.60 a week per person for a typical nonfarm family of four—mother, father, and two young children. Twice that amount was allowed for all other living expenses, since food customarily represents one-third of consumption expenditures in low-income families.

The income dividing the poor from the nonpoor varies according to the sex and age of family members, ranging from $1,580 for one person under age 65 to $5,090 for a family of 7 or more persons living in nonfarm areas. For farm families, the amounts are about 40 percent lower because these families typically produce part of their food on the farm. This differential will be reduced to about 30 percent in future estimates.

TABLE 16. WORK EXPERIENCE IN 1963 OF THE POOR:[1] FAMILY HEADS AND UNRELATED INDIVIDUALS

[Numbers in thousands]

Work experience of head	Families with two or more members		Unrelated individuals	
	Male head	Female head	Male	Female
Total: Number	5,222	1,958	1,441	3,474
Percent	100	100	100	100
Worked all year	39	15	21	11
Full-time job	35	9	17	7
Part-time job	4	6	4	4
Worked part of the year	33	28	28	20
Looking for work	19	7	11	4
Ill or disabled	6	4	4	3
Keeping house	----	15	----	6
All other	8	2	13	7
Didn't work at all	28	58	51	69
Ill or disabled	12	10	20	14
Keeping house	----	41	----	43
Couldn't find work	1	2	4	2
All other	15	5	27	10

[1] For definition, see text footnote 13.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: Mollie Orshansky, "Counting the Poor: Another Look at the Poverty Profile," *Social Security Bulletin*, January 1965, pp. 21–22, 24.

had earners other than the head (about 40 percent compared with 55 percent). The poor families were larger and younger, and fewer of the wives were in the labor force. With lower job skills, the poor wives were also less successful in finding a job when they did look for work.

Another reason why unemployment and poverty are frequently linked is that many workers have suffered recurrent spells of unemployment in the same year or over a period of years, and have thus been unable to attain a satisfactory annual income or to accumulate any savings. Nearly one-third of the family heads who were unemployed for as much as 5 weeks in 1962 had had, altogether, at least a year of unemployment during the 3 years 1960–62.[14] Their average amount of unemployment during this period was 7½ months.

The available data provide no basis for distinguishing the impact of unemployment from that of other economic causes on the tendency of many low-income families to remain year after year below or only slightly above the poverty line. But it is reasonable to postulate that unemployment (and underemployment) contribute substantially to this phenomenon of persistently low family income. Of families with incomes below $3,000 in 1962, 70 percent were also below $3,000 in 1963. Of those whose incomes rose, two-fifths did not exceed $4,000.[15]

A 1964 study of low-income families by the California Department of Social Welfare supports this general conclusion. The study found that the families on public assistance and those supporting themselves had much the same characteristics and faced a similar marginal employment situation over the long run, although the former group "happens to be *currently* unemployed and *currently* on welfare, while the other group is not—but is likely to be at any given time in the future." [16]

[14] Carol B. Kalish, "A Portrait of the Unemployed," *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1966, p. 9.

[15] *Economic Report of the President Together With The Annual Report of the Council of Economic Advisers* (Washington: U.S. Council of Economic Advisers, January 1965), pp. 163–164.

[16] *State Social Welfare Board, First Annual Report* (Sacramento: State of California, Department of Social Welfare, 1965), pp. 14 and 18.

The economic difficulties of poor families also develop from inadequate long-term protection against contingencies which are likely to curtail their income further.[17] In this respect, unemployment is an important determinant, since many rights and benefits accrue only to the regularly employed or are proportionate to length of employment and amount of earnings. Social security now covers more than nine-tenths of all wage and salary workers. But the maximum benefit for retired workers, barely enough to take them above the poverty line, is payable only to those who have worked regularly for many years in covered employment and who have received the maximum creditable earnings. Most workers with a history of intermittent employment and low earnings receive much less—sometimes as little as a third of the maximum amount. Nor are such workers apt to receive benefits under a private pension plan, typically paid only to workers with long service under the plan, or to have accumulated savings which could be used to supplement current income.[18]

Furthermore, unemployed workers frequently lose their hospitalization and medical care insurance when they lose their job, and they are not likely to have been able to afford individual policies. Thus, the National Health Survey for July 1962–June 1963 showed that only 45 percent of the persons in families with incomes of less than $4,000 (which would include many of those with unemployment during the year) had hospitalization insurance and only 39 percent had surgical insurance. In higher income groups, three-fourths or more of the families had such coverage.[19]

Altogether, though many of the interrelations among unemployment, income, and poverty remain to be clarified, the foregoing data suffice to make these three points clear: (1) Unemployment and underemployment have frequently led to poverty. (2) These conditions have also prevented or limited the accumulation of savings and vitiated or restricted benefit rights under social security and private plans for economic security—with the effect, all too often, of trapping workers in poverty when they retire, become ill, or face other emergencies. (3) For workers with frequent or sustained unemployment, the trip out of poverty has been difficult. And even if this was successful, many have been unable to leave poverty far behind.

To the extent that men suffer from repeated spells of unemployment or underemployment, they are unable to give their children a start in life which would aid them to escape from poverty. Hence unemployment has an important intergenerational impact which will be illuminated below.

What Unemployment Does to People

Work—and the lack of it—has a significance for individuals quite apart from their relation to earnings. A job provides a man with the basis for self-respect and a feeling of self-worth. When he loses his job and cannot find another, he must acknowledge that "he has within him no contribution that the economy values,"[20] and this in a society where economic evaluations are crucial.

A job also provides a man with a focus for his everyday life. This is revealed in the difficulties which many face in retirement—being cut off from the interests and friendships of the workplace. Such difficulties are intensified for the unemployed. The humiliation and withdrawal of the long-term unemployed from life around them were vividly documented in various studies under-

[17] James N. Morgan et al., *Income and Welfare in the United States* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1962), p. 205.

[18] It has been estimated that the number of aged classed as poor on the basis of 1963 income would have been reduced by only half a million—from 31 to 27 percent of all aged persons—if their available assets (other than their homes) were to be invested and the additional income prorated over the average years of life remaining. See Mollie Orshansky, "Who's Who Among the Poor: A Demographic View of Poverty," *Social Security Bulletin*, July 1965, p. 13.

[19] *Medical Care, Health Status, and Family Income: United States* (Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Public Health Service, National Center for Health Statistics, 1964), Series 10, No. 9, p. 9.

[20] Theodore Morgan, *Income and Employment* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952), p. 122.

taken during the Great Depression. While the number of individuals so afflicted is fortunately much smaller today, the effects may well be worse, because unemployment is not currently "legitimized" as it was in the shared misfortunes of the 1930's.

Prolonged unemployment destroys the fabric of a man's life. There is no regular activity to fill his waking hours, no routine to anchor his existence. Time becomes his worst enemy, and the monotony of long hours with nothing to do robs him of incentive to pursue constructive goals. Idleness is demoralizing; social contacts diminish, self-improvement often appears useless, and the confidence to carry on evaporates. Prolonged unemployment may also involve loss of skill and erode a man's motivation to become self-supporting again.

A job is a minimum requirement for meaningful participation in society for a man who is head of a household, at least until he reaches retirement age. A man who cannot lay claim to a job knows that he is considered useless—a failure in a society that traditionally measures success in terms of occupational achievement.

The tendency of the unemployed man to withdraw from social life may affect his civic participation and result in a loosening of his community ties. People with erratic work histories have much lower social participation than those with orderly work histories, as reflected in family ties, friendships, and membership in formal and informal organizations.[21] Even when families remain intact, lengthy unemployment cuts down their participation in community life, if only because they lack the money needed to participate in activities outside the home. There is at least a suggestion in a recent Census study that, among comparable groups, the unemployed are less likely to go to the polls.[22] Unemployment may, then, be related also to a lessening in civic participation.

Major Correlates of Unemployment

For the reasons previously suggested—namely that unemployment *per se* cannot often be sharply distinguished from the consequences of underemployment, of being forced out of the labor force, and of low income and poverty—the following assessment of the major social correlates of unemployment is frequently more suggestive than definitive. There is every reason to believe that unemployment, particularly repeated or prolonged spells of unemployment, is likely to have destructive consequences such as are outlined below, even though the specific data available frequently relate to low income rather than to unemployment.

Three bodies of materials are dealt with—relating, first, to the movement of people and the quality of family life; second, to the education and preparation of the young; and third, to the major facets of the social environment—the houses people live in, the food they eat, their vulnerability to illness, and their conflicts with the law.

MOBILITY AND MIGRATION

The growth and development of our national economy and its effective functioning have been aided by the high degree of geographic mobility characteristic of American workers. Yet it is necessary to recognize that migration may be misdirected and sometimes excessive and may not contribute to improving the well-being of individuals and their families.

The unemployed are about twice as likely to migrate as employed workers, and they do so chiefly to look for work or take a prearranged job. But migration, unless well planned and well informed, is no sure road to an improved employment situation, as the experience of former farm residents now crowded into urban slums testifies.

Because of the decline in farm employment and the racial discrimination in the rural South, great

[21] Harold Wilensky, "Orderly Careers and Social Participation: The Impact of Work History on Social Integration in the Middle Mass," *American Sociological Review*, August 1961, pp. 521–539.

[22] *Voter Participation in the National Election, November 1964* (Washington: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October 25, 1965), Current Population Reports, P–20, No. 143, table 4, p. 21.

numbers of Southern Negro farmworkers have migrated to the cities. Many of these have failed for a shorter or longer period to secure permanent employment or to become effectively socialized in the new urban environment, for which they were ill prepared. Difficulties such as deterioration of housing and neighborhoods, rising welfare costs, and unsolved educational problems which confront many cities reflect in considerable measure their failure to absorb successfully large numbers of in-migrants. The more slack the urban demand for manpower, the more difficulties recent migrants face in becoming absorbed into the economic life of the city.

A closely related phenomenon is the excessive intraurban movement characteristic of some of the unemployed. Forced to find shelter in the least desirable housing and neighborhoods, they are most likely to be dislocated by urban renewal programs. Even in the absence of such forced mobility, the unemployed are frequently on the move as a result of having to seek cheaper quarters. Nationwide data for the recession year 1961 show 4 out of every 8 of the long-term unemployed (27 or more weeks of unemployment) moving to cheaper housing in order to make ends meet.[23] In the worst slum areas, the amount of movement is much greater than this. Thus, the New York City Board of Education has reported that in certain schools, the turnover of pupils exceeds 100 percent per annum, underscoring the great additional burden that such mobility places on the educational system.

Another striking example of excessive mobility associated with lack of suitable work opportunities is that of migrant farm laborers, who numbered close to 400,000 in 1964.[24] Seventy percent of them worked more than 25 days at farm wage work. This group averaged 155 days of wage work on and off the farm during the year and had an average wage income of not quite $1,600. These farm migrants form one of the most depressed segments of the American labor force. Along with other seasonal hired workers, they suffer grievously from unemployment, underemployment, and low incomes, and their children in turn are seriously handicapped by the frequent disruption or nonavailability of schooling, in addition to suffering from lack of other basic services (as further described in the chapter on Farmworkers).

[23] Stein, op. cit., p. 1413.

[24] Gladys K. Bowles, *The Hired Farm Working Force of 1964: A Statistical Report* (Washington: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, 1965), Agricultural Economic Report No. 82, tables 4 and 19.

FAMILY LIFE

. . . A family whose breadwinner is chronically out of work is almost invariably a disintegrating family. Crime rates soar and welfare rolls increase, even faster than the population.[25]

Lack of work sometimes discourages couples who have been living together, even with children, from normalizing their relations by getting married. Unable to find a steady job, the man is disinclined to assume the added burden of marriage and the woman is loath to take a husband if he cannot support her.

Much more pervasive is the way in which unemployment and underemployment contribute to the breakup of families where the spouses have been legally married and have been living together with their children for a period of years. Family cohesion differs materially between the situation where the man has a job and the one where the man is no longer able to support his family:

. . . There is much evidence that wives of all levels, and certainly many low-income wives, will settle for husbands who provide financial support if need be—even though it may be an empty shell family—together but empty. However, low-income wives do not have the same chance to settle for basic material needs; therefore, the difference between the middle and upper income wife's staying and the low-income wife's leaving—or asking the husband to leave—is often one of income and its management. We find few empty shell families among the poor. The poor man cannot support them.[26]

Until the Social Security Act was amended in 1961, it sometimes tended to speed the breakup of families with an unemployed father, since "aid to families of dependent children" (AFDC) was barred as long as there was an able-bodied father living at home. Only if he moved out or deserted, or the couple became divorced, could mother and children receive assistance, assuming they were otherwise eligible. Four years after the amendment of the act, only 18 States have recognized the unemployment of parents as a basis for assistance under this program. In July 1965, such parental

[25] *Violence in the City—An End or a Beginning?* (Los Angeles: Governor's Commission on the Los Angeles Riots, December 2, 1965), p. 6.

[26] Hylan Lewis, "The Contemporary Urban Poverty Syndrome," address to Howard University Medical School, April 28, 1964.

unemployment accounted for only about 6 percent of the total AFDC caseload in the country as a whole, compared with 10 percent in the 18 States with enabling legislation. The fact that the majority of States still do not use the AFDC program to cover need arising out of unemployment has certainly aggravated the effects of unemployment on many families.

When unemployment disappears, family life may be resumed. A 1960 study of AFDC in Cook County (Chicago) found that in 15 percent of the closed cases the reason for ending assistance was the father's return when he was again able to support his family.

The role that unemployment plays in family disintegration and the contribution of employment to family cohesion are further suggested by the following judgment from the same study with respect to Cook County and other metropolitan areas:

> The evidence during the two war periods seems to support the conclusion that many fathers return when they are able to resume support. Fathers in the service and in war industry were able to support their families and returned in large numbers. The caseloads fell sharply during the second World War and the Korean war.[27]

The following 1964 data highlight the relation between the employment status of the father and the circumstances under which children grow up. Of the children with employed fathers, only about 15 percent were in families below the poverty level. Where the father was unemployed, the figure was almost three times as great (44 percent); and where the father was not in the labor force, it was 37 percent. About 5 million children were in families where the head of the household, father or mother, was unemployed or out of the labor force; another 10 million had parents who, though employed, were unable to earn a satisfactory income.[28] Thus, unemployment often contributes directly—and possibly even more often indirectly—to depriving children of satisfactory opportunities for growth and development.

EDUCATION OF THE YOUNG

The linkages between unemployment and low income, on the one hand, and limited educational opportunities on the other, are easy to delineate, even though other factors are likely to be operating at the same time to bring about undesirable school results.

The bleak prospects of the poor child in the city schools are described by the Governor's Commission on the Los Angeles Riots:

> In examining the sickness in the center of our city, what has depressed and stunned us most is the dull, devastating spiral of failure that awaits the average disadvantaged child in the urban core. His home life all too often fails to give him the incentive and the elementary experience with words and ideas which prepares most children for school. Unprepared and unready, he may not learn to read or write at all; and because he shares his problem with 30 or more in the same classroom, even the efforts of the most dedicated teachers are unavailing. Age, not achievement, passes him on to higher grades, but in most cases he is unable to cope with courses in the upper grades because they demand basic skills which he does not possess. . . .
>
> Frustrated and disillusioned, the child becomes a discipline problem. Often he leaves school, sometimes before the end of junior high school. . . . He slips into the ranks of the permanent jobless, illiterate and untrained, unemployed and unemployable. . . .
>
> Reflecting this spiral of failure, unemployment in the disadvantaged areas runs two or three times the county average, and the employment available is too often intermittent.[29]

The situation is different, but no less desperate, for the rural poor. Thus, a Kentucky miner called to court by the truant officer said:

> Judge, I'm not the only man in this fix on the creek where I live. They's at least a dozen other men who ain't sent their children to school for the same reason mine ain't a'goin'. They can't send 'em 'cause they can't get hold of any money to send 'em with. . . . If the county attorney or the truant officer will find me a job where I can work out something for my kids to wear, I'll be much obliged to 'em as long as I live.[30]

Low-income urban families may also have difficulty meeting the school expenses of their children. In New York City, for example, a recent survey of an eighth-grade class showed that in a 3-month period children were asked to bring $26.50 in "extra money" to school. In this class, 70 percent of the children came from families on welfare who received 25 cents a month for a junior high school child's extra expenses.[31]

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[27] *Facts, Fallacies, and Future: A Study of the Aid to Dependent Children Program of Cook County, Ill.* (New York: Greenleigh Associates, 1960), p. 19.

[28] Orshansky, op. cit., table E, p. 30.

[29] *Violence in the City*, op. cit., pp. 5–6.

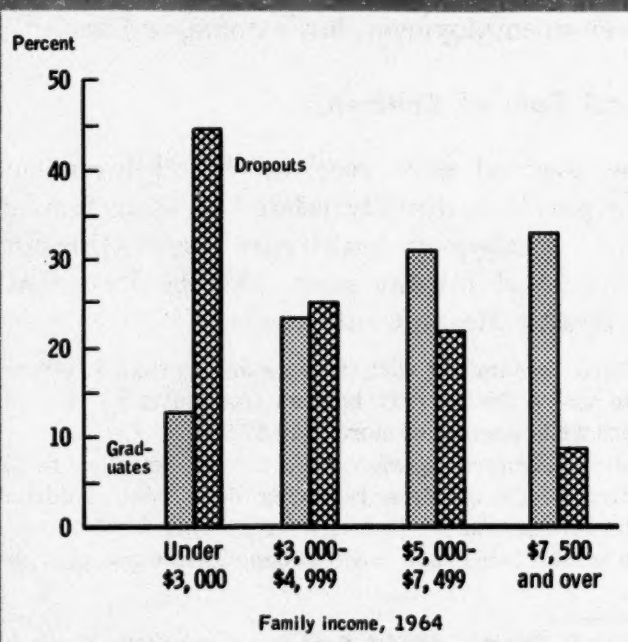
[30] Harry M. Caudill, *Night Comes to the Cumberlands: A Biography of a Depressed Area* (Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1963), pp. 360–361.

[31] Vernon F. Haubrich, "Teachers for Big-City Schools," *Education in Depressed Areas*, ed. A. Harry Passow (New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, 1963), p. 245.

The relationship between income and school leaving is revealed in chart 12. Thus, 45 percent of the young people who dropped out of school between October 1963 and October 1964 belonged to families with incomes of less than $3,000. Fewer than one-third as many of the 1964 high school graduates who did not go on to college were in such low-income families.

The importance of economic reasons for school leaving is undeniable, even though these reasons overlap and often operate simultaneously with other factors, notably, poor academic performance and an adverse social climate in school. According to a 1963 survey, economic reasons ("unemployment in the family," "need of the adolescent to help support family," "could not afford to go to school," "needed money," etc.) were those most often given by the boys who had dropped out of school. Among the girls, the second largest group cited economic reasons for dropping out (the largest, marriage or pregnancy). Specifically, 25 percent of the white boys, 31 percent of the nonwhite boys, 12 percent of the white girls, and 11 percent of the nonwhite girls said they left school for economic reasons.[32]

Chart 12 **Almost half of recent high school dropouts were in families with less than $3,000 income—over three times the corresponding figure for graduates.**



Note: Data refer to 1964 high school graduates not enrolled in college in October 1964, and school dropouts from October 1963 to October 1964.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

ACCEPTABILITY FOR MILITARY SERVICE

The Armed Forces make use of physical, mental, emotional, and administrative (moral) criteria to select young men for enlistment and induction. A 1963 study revealed that approximately 1 out of every 3 young men failed to qualify: about half could not pass the medical examination and the others were unable to pass the mental test—geared to approximately an eighth-grade level of educational attainment.[33] While some who failed to pass the mental test were retarded, the vast majority were educationally deprived.

There were many concomitants of unemployment among those rejected. About a fifth came from families that had received public assistance in the 5 previous years. About a fifth of the rejectees' fathers, or fathers-in-law with whom they were living, were not working. Although 4 out of 10 mental rejectees said they had dropped out of school to support themselves or their families, 3 out of 10 were not working at the time they were examined.

More jobs and better jobs for the fathers of these rejectees and an easier entrance into the work force for the rejectees themselves might not have assured the acceptance of a much higher proportion for military service. They would probably have had some effect in this direction, however, and they would certainly have aided the young men's life adjustment. Rejection by the Armed Forces represents additional failure for these young people. They are denied the opportunity that military service provides of broadening their knowledge, experience, and skill. Many are school dropouts who find it particularly hard to find and hold a job.

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[32] Vera C. Perrella and Forrest A. Bogan, *Out-of-School Youth, February 1963* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, November 1964), Special Labor Force Report No. 46, table A–3, p. A–6.

[33] *One-Third of a Nation: A Report on Young Men Found Unqualified for Military Service* (Washington: The President's Task Force on Manpower Conservation, January 1, 1964).

HOUSING

Substandard housing is another problem interrelated with unemployment, underemployment, and poverty. As income rises, so does the percentage of families able to live in a structurally sound dwelling equipped with adequate plumbing facilities. (See table 17.)

Although the last two decades have seen Federal, State, and local governments contribute substantially to expansion of public housing in order to improve living conditions for those at the lower end of the income scale, many public housing projects give preference to families whose heads have steady jobs. A record of repeated unemployment or casual employment may keep a family out, even if it is currently living in substandard housing.

Crowding is a well-known concomitant of substandard housing and the effects are often damaging to children in depriving them of privacy and proper study or play space. An additional consequence is the difficulty of controlling the spread of communicable diseases such as tuberculosis, measles, and whooping cough.

Admittedly the foregoing relates most directly to the impediments low income places in the path of many families seeking proper living quarters. But it is relevant to the circumstances of the many unemployed or underemployed who have very low incomes.

NUTRITION

In the field of nutrition also, unemployment and poverty have evidently harmful and lasting effects.

As the U.S. Commissioner of Welfare remarked at the White House Conference on Education in 1965, it is very difficult for hungry—or sleepy—children to profit from instruction. It was noted earlier that economizing in expenditures for food was the most pervasive adjustment made by the unemployed in reducing expenditures to fit their lowered income. The lower the family income, the higher the proportion that a family must spend on food.

It is generally true that the lower the cost of the diet, the more limited the choice of kinds and qualities of food and the more skill demanded in marketing and food preparation. In practice, nearly half of the families who spend no more on food than is allowed in the poverty criteria fall short of adequate diets. More than 40 percent of the families spending at this rate in 1955 got less than two-thirds of their requirements for one or more nutrients.[34] Because of their smaller income per person, large families—and over 1 million poor families have at least 5 children—are especially likely to have diets deficient in calcium, ascorbic acid, and protein.[35] Diets too low in protein are more likely than others to have deficiencies in other essential nutrients as well.

Pressed as they are on many fronts, poor families frequently spend too little on food, with adverse effects on their employability as well as on their health. In the study of relief clients in Cook County, obesity resulting from a high-starch diet was found to be a major physical handicap to mothers seeking employment.[36]

HEALTH AND MEDICAL CARE

Good health is important not only for the contribution it makes to the physical and emotional well-being of the individual but often also as a key to his employability. The absence of good health may be a serious employment handicap—as suggested by the information just presented on the effects of poor nutrition on employability of women on public assistance and that given earlier on the relation of medical defects to rejection for military service of young men from low-income homes. These are, of course, only a few illustrations of the manifold and complex relationships between unemployment, low income, and health.

Medical Care of Children

The medical care received by children and young people is directly related to their family's income. Inadequate health care persists throughout childhood for the poor. As the President's 1965 Health Message indicated:

> Children in families with incomes of less than $2,000 are able to vist a doctor only half as frequently as those in families with incomes of more than $7,000.
>
> Public assistance payments for medical services to the 3 million needy children receiving dependent children's benefits throughout the Nation average only $2.80 a month and in some States such medical benefits are not provided at all.

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[34] Betty B. Peterkin, "USDA Food Plans and Costs—Tools for Deriving Food Cost Standards for Use in Public Assistance," *Family Economic Review*, March 1965, pp. 19–23.

[35] Mollie Orshansky, "Counting the Poor: Another Look at the Poverty Profile," *Social Security Bulletin*, January 1965, p. 8.

[36] *Facts, Fallacies, and Future*, op. cit.

TABLE 17. CONDITION OF HOUSING BY INCOME CLASS OF HOUSEHOLD IN 1959 AND BY COLOR, 1960

[Numbers in thousands]

Income class	Total number of households		Percent in:			
			Standard housing[1]		Substandard housing	
	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite	White	Nonwhite
Total	47,880	5,144	87	56	13	44
Less than $3,000	12,047	2,755	70	39	30	61
$3,000 to $4,999	9,536	1,186	85	67	15	33
$5,000 to $6,999	10,512	645	93	81	7	20
$7,000 and over	15,786	558	97	89	3	12

[1] Standard housing, as defined by the Census, had slight or no defects, hot and cold running water and exclusive use of a flush toilet and bathtub (or shower) within the unit.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

SOURCE: *1960 Census of Housing, Metropolitan Housing, United States and Divisions* (Washington : U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1963), vol. II, pt. I, tables A-4 and A-13.

Poor families increasingly are forced to turn to overcrowded hospital emergency rooms and to overburdened city clinics as their only resource to meet their routine health needs.[37]

The lack of adequate medical care for children in low-income families is the more significant in the light of two circumstances. Children under 15 are nearly twice as subject to acute illness as adults. Second, the incidence of infectious diseases tends to be highest in the depressed urban areas where so many poor children live. In the Los Angeles area, for example, a recent study found that the very crowded, low-income, high-unemployment neighborhoods of the city were also the ones with the highest percentage of every major disease reported in 1960.[38] In these neighborhoods, where male unemployment rates ranged from 1½ to more than 4 times the citywide average, the childhood plagues of measles and mumps were 1½ times as prevalent as elsewhere in the city; rheumatic fever and whooping cough were 2½ times as frequent; and polio, brucellosis, and diphtheria 6 times as frequent.

Mental Retardation

Lack of income stemming from unemployment and other causes also contributes significantly to one of the Nation's most costly afflictions—mental retardation. One of the major factors in mental retardation is prematurity—which is related to poor nutrition and the absence or inadequacy of prenatal care—factors related in turn to low income. About 35 percent of all mothers in cities with populations over 100,000 are medically indigent. In 138 large cities, approximately 455,000 women each year cannot afford adequate health care during and after pregnancy. Among expectant mothers who do not receive prenatal care, more than 20 percent of all births are premature. This is two or three times the rate of prematurity among those who do receive adequate prenatal care.[39]

The surroundings in which children grow up can also contribute to mental retardation. For example, dilapidated housing has been held to be responsible for retardation from lead poisoning caused by ingestion of flaking paint and plaster.[40] Severe mental retardation strikes the children of the rich also, but the prevalence of psychological, environmental, or genetic mental retardation with no evidence of brain damage is greater in lower socioeconomic groups. Many retarded children, particularly those with mild intellectual defects, are members of ethnic minorities, live under sub-

[37] *Advancing the Nation's Health—Message from the President of the United States* (Washington: 89th Cong., 1st sess., House of Representatives, January 7, 1965), House Document No. 44, p. 4.

[38] *Hard-core Unemployment and Poverty in Los Angeles* (Washington: U.S. Department of Commerce, Area Redevelopment Administration, August 1965), p. 88.

[39] *Mental Retardation: Activities of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare* (Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Secretary's Committee on Mental Retardation, July 1963), p. 89.

[40] Robert C. Grigges et al., "Environmental Factors in Childhood Lead Poisoning," *Journal of the American Medical Association*, March 7, 1964, pp. 703–707.

standard conditions, and lack proper educational and cultural opportunities. Whereas only 2.7 percent of the Nation's young people under the age of 20 are classified as mentally retarded, about 10 percent of the 423,000 children served by public child welfare agencies as of March 1962 were so classified.[41] Almost half of the latter group were in foster care; not included in these figures were significant numbers of retarded children in institutions for dependent and neglected children. Once again, this pathology cannot be blamed primarily on unemployment or underemployment though these conditions may contribute through their relation to low income.

Illness and Disability

Although illness may cause poverty, because it makes a man unable to work and to earn, it also frequently results from poverty. In England, as early as the mid-19th century, pioneers in the study of poverty and disease found that people were "sick because they were poor, poorer because they were sick, and sicker because they were poorer." [42]

Since the National Health Survey (NHS) was initiated in 1957, its findings have reaffirmed that disability, low income, and unemployment are mutually sustaining. Between July 1962 and June 1963, for example, illness and disability caused over 1½ times as many days of work loss in the lowest as in the highest family income group. Thus, even after adjustments for age differences, the average annual work loss due to disability ranged downward from 8.6 days for persons in families with incomes of less than $2,000 to 5.5 days for those with family incomes of $7,000 or more.[43] In the preceding fiscal year, the NHS indicated that persons employed in the four occupational groups where family income was lowest—household workers, farmworkers, laborers, and service workers—had the highest rates of restricted activity (not necessarily entailing work loss) as a result of both acute and chronic conditions.[44] Similarly, chronic conditions which restricted the workers' ability to carry on their major activity (that is, the kind or amount of work they could do) were reported by 7 percent of the employed but by 12.5 percent of the unemployed.

In part, the higher disability rates among the unemployed may reflect the presence of an injury or disease which prevents a man from working, or working regularly. But the unemployed may regard illness as a socially acceptable—and in some cases even useful—excuse for being out of work. This is made clear in the following quotation regarding conditions in part of Appalachia:

> . . . men were reduced to the tragic status of "symptom-hunters." . . . Like dispirited soldiers who hope to avoid combat, they besieged the doctors, complaining of a wide range of ailments. Their backs ached. They suffered from headaches. They could not sleep. They were short of breath and had chest pains. Their stomachs were upset and they could not eat. Above all, they were "nervous." To support their woeful histories they could point to scars on arms, legs, and chest, mementos of old mining accidents. When lumped together and presented to a doctor, these things were supposed to indicate such disability as incapacitated the man from working. Then his children, as public charges, could draw enough money to feed the family. . . .
>
> Under the law an applicant could be certified as eligible only if the "Welfare doctor" certified him to be so physically disabled that he was unable to work at any gainful occupation. Doctors . . . found that many of the disabled fathers were actually strong men driven to neurosis by circumstances with which they could not cope. The reports went out that the applicants had an accumulation of defects and illnesses but, on the whole, were able to labor.[45]

Mental Health

The relations between unemployment and emotional illness have been suggested in the above quotation, and there are additional links. People who are emotionally sick often have trouble getting and holding jobs. But to the extent that environmental stress contributes to psychoses—and most authorities believe that it does—then loss of work, inability to find a job, lack of adequate income, and inability to support one's dependents probably contribute to the onset of illness, to its prolongation, and to recurrence. A series of urban studies (New Haven, New York, Baltimore), each beset with methological difficulties, point nonetheless to an association between unemployment, low income, and a higher incidence

[41] *Mental Retardation*, op. cit., p. 47.

[42] C. E. A. Winslow, *The Cost of Sickness and the Price of Health* (Geneva: World Health Organization, 1951), p. 9.

[43] *Medical Care, Health Status, and Family Income: United States*, op. cit., p. 72.

[44] Doris K. Lewis, "Prevalence of Disabilities in the Work Force," *Monthly Labor Review*, September 1964, pp. 1002–1008.

[45] Caudill, op. cit., pp. 280–281.

of psychoses.[46] Similarly, a recent study by the Social Research Laboratory of the California Department of Mental Health of a sample of patients admitted to State hospitals found a high incidence of continuing employment difficulties.[47]

In reaching a judgment about whether a patient is ready for release from a mental hospital or should be admitted or readmitted, physicians and social workers often depend in part on their estimate of his likelihood of finding and holding a job. Work is a potent therapeutic agent, and the ability to be self-supporting is often a stabilizing force. The reintegration of the former mental patient in his community is hindered if he cannot find employment.

DELINQUENCY AND CRIME

Unsatisfactory as are the data about the social correlates of unemployment and poverty so far discussed, those on delinquency and crime are even harder to interpret for this purpose. Most studies find an association between unemployment rates and adult crime, particularly crimes against property,[48] but the precise relationships cannot be readily established.

It is not to be supposed that any sizable number of offenses are committed by persons simply because they cannot get a job. On the other hand, people who have difficulty with authority, who are alienated from society in various ways, or whose socialization is inadequate are less likely than most other people to get or hold jobs. To put it another way, the higher the obstacles to succeeding within society's rules, the greater the strain in observing them. In any case, a study of the inmates of Federal prisons showed that unemployment had been a frequent experience for many inmates.[49] Furthermore, prisoners in all types of institutions had previously been concentrated in low-skilled occupations, characterized by low wages and high rates of unemployment, to a much greater extent than the labor force as a whole.[50]

As a review of the literature makes clear, there is no simple and clear-cut relationship between unemployment and juvenile delinquency. The job market situation in the locality does not appear to have a direct and overriding influence.[51] But unemployment and underemployment may contribute to delinquency insofar as they affect the stability of family and neighborhood. One analyst found, for example, that the more heterogeneous the neighborhood the higher the delinquency rate.[52] And heterogeneity and instability are among the correlates of unemployment and the geographic mobility that sometimes accompanies it.

Another student of the subject reasons: "If it is true, as seems likely, that family structure is a function of income, then changes in income not only will operate directly upon delinquency rates but indirectly through family structure as well. . . . a 10-percent rise in incomes may be expected to reduce delinquency rates by between 15 and 25 percent when the income change occurs in a very delinquent area and is of the type, i.e., especially increased earning power, that will reduce the number of broken families as well." [53]

Because there are other sources of instability in American life that affect high- as well as low-income groups, and that affect the employed as well as the unemployed, one would not expect to find unemployment *per se* to be the major correlate of delinquency. However, according to one expert, "an examination of delinquency rates and other variables by age and through time suggests that the effect of unemployment on juvenile delinquency is positive and significant." [54] In addition, the fact that school dropout rates, unemployment rates, and delinquency rates all reach a peak at age 16 may imply that ". . . the high unemployment

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[46] The New Haven study is reported by August B. Hollingshead and Fredrick C. Redlich, *Social Class and Mental Illness* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1958); the New York study, by Leo Srole et al., *Mental Health in the Metropolis—the Midtown Manhattan Study* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1962); and the Baltimore study, by Benjamin Passamanick et al., "A Survey of Mental Disease in an Urban Population: Prevalence by Race and Income," *Epidemiology of Mental Disorder*, ed. Hans Nussbaum (Washington: American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1959), pp. 183–196.

[47] John Cumming, "The Inadequacy Syndrome," *The Psychiatric Quarterly*, October 1963, pp. 730–731.

[48] Daniel Glaser and Kent Rice, "Crime, Age and Employment," *American Sociological Review*, 1959, pp. 679–686.

[49] Daniel Glaser, *The Effectiveness of a Prison and Parole System* (Indianapolis: The Bobbs Merrill Co., Inc., 1964).

[50] *Training Needs in Correctional Institutions* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, September 1965), Manpower Research Bulletin No. 8 (advance printing), p. 4.

[51] Marcia Guttentag, "The Relationship of Unemployment to Crime and Delinquency," Yale University, Department of Psychology, unpublished manuscript.

[52] B. Lander, *Towards an Understanding of Juvenile Delinquency* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1954).

[53] Belton M. Fleisher, "The Effect of Income on Delinquency," University of Chicago, Center for Social Organization Studies, 1965, unpublished manuscript, Working Paper No. 40, pp. 28–29.

[54] Belton M. Fleisher, "The Effect of Unemployment on Juvenile Delinquency," *Journal of Political Economy*, December 1963, pp. 553–554.

rate which youths encounter upon entering the labor market is at least partly responsible for the observed age distribution of arrests." [55]

Still another factor in delinquency is the extremely high rate of unemployment among released prisoners. The ex-prisoner's lack of skill or experience and his prison record seem to be the major barriers to employment. Furthermore, a study of parolees in Virginia showed a direct relationship between parole violations and low earnings. It should be noted that 28 percent of the inmates of correctional institutions are under 25 years of age, and that recidivism is highest among the young.[56]

Some Major Costs

A humane society has no option but to be deeply concerned about the costs of unemployment and the underutilization of its manpower resources. The wastes are many and diverse. Some can be estimated; others can only be outlined. But the costs to our economy and society compel attention and action.

On the basis of calculations by the Council of Economic Advisers, the loss in gross national product from unemployment in excess of 4 percent was running at an annual rate of $50 billion in the first quarter of 1961. At that time, the unemployment rate (seasonally adjusted) was 6.8 percent. By the last quarter of 1965, when unemployment had fallen to 4.2 percent, the calculated GNP loss was down to an annual rate of $7 billion. The foregoing estimates would be much greater were they tied to an unemployment rate below 4 percent, consistent with the country's long-term objective of full employment.

Though the social costs associated with unemployment and underutilization of manpower cannot now be accurately calculated, a few figures do exist which suggest that these costs are indeed high. And the foregoing discussion makes clear their significance in the following important areas:

1. Family poverty and disorganization, which result in large numbers of children being raised in circumstances that deprive them of proper physical, emotional, and social development. Broken families with low income or no earned income, even more than families with unemployed fathers, find it difficult to provide adequate nurture for their children, a situation which may later be reflected in economic dependency.

2. The very large and rising costs of institutionalizing large numbers of children and adults in homes for the retarded, mental hospitals, reformatories, and prisons. These costs are related to the failure of many adults to find employment that would enable them to support themselves and their dependents.

3. The costs associated with illness. These include high charges to government and philanthropy for the hospitalization of many unemployed persons and their dependents whose illnesses have been previously neglected because of inadequate income, loss of social and economic contribution due to premature death, and dangers faced by other citizens from heightened exposure to infectious diseases.

4. The costs associated with unsuccessful geographical mobility. A large number of pressing urban problems have been aggravated by the inability of millions of rural people to earn a living on the farm and the difficulties they, together with other disadvantaged people, face in finding employment in urban centers.

5. The insecurity of person and property resulting from rising rates of delinquency and crime. The fact that many citizens in an increasing number of cities do not walk the streets in many areas after dark with a feeling of security and safety and that many owners hire private guards to make their property secure underscores the major costs to the community of men seeking their livelihood from crime rather than from work.

Illustrative of the scale of resulting expenditures are three estimates. The costs of institutional care for the retarded, including costs of construction and related efforts, total more than $1 billion annually. The direct costs of mental illness have been calculated at $1.7 billion annually.

[55] Ibid., p. 548.

[56] *The Virginia Parole System—An Appraisal of its First Twelve Years* (Charlottesville, Va.: University of Virginia, Bureau of Public Administration, May 1955), p. 106, cited in *Training Needs*, op. cit.

And the cost of maintaining the penal system has been estimated at between $2 and $3 billion annually. Even if unemployment and underutilization of manpower account for but a small part of the pathology giving rise to these expenditures, that small part entails a significant social cost.

Some Implications

These are the more important social costs clearly related in varying degrees to unemployment and underemployment. Undoubtedly, additional research would bring both a recognition of the full social costs and a better understanding of the linkages between the underutilization of manpower and urgent social problems and, in so doing, would attach a higher price tag to our economy's continuing failure to fully utilize its manpower resources. Nevertheless, the foregoing analysis leads to two broad conclusions.

First, the human and social costs attendant on unemployment and underemployment are so high as to warrant large-scale and many-pronged efforts—difficult and expensive as these may be—to bring the hard-to-employ into employment. They amply support the recommendations elsewhere in this report with respect to the strengthening of training and work-training programs focused on disadvantaged workers, for job development programs for these groups, for improvements in the functioning of the job market, and for other measures to improve the development and utilization of presently unused or underutilized human resources.

Progress in this direction will help to meet the urgent needs of many potential workers and their families and will contribute to the alleviation of a variety of social problems. It can also make a major contribution to meeting the country's rising manpower requirements, by enabling many additional workers to enter the labor force and many others to shift to more productive employment.

Second, there is evident need for a vastly improved system of social accounting which would make it possible to assess the full range of economic, social, and human costs attendant upon a shortfall of jobs, inadequacies in personal and family income, and lack of opportunities for full development of the country's human potential.

The view one has of the social system and its problems depends in large measure on the mode of analysis used to delimit and define its operations. *The Manpower Report* itself illustrates this thesis: since 1962, national policy has required a systematic analysis of the manpower situation, with the result that there is now a more comprehensive picture of the labor force and its utilization than ever before. This information has aided, among other things, in identifying emerging problems and in indicating areas where program development would be fruitful.

But without more specific knowledge of the social as well as the economic and manpower consequences of unemployment and underemployment, policy planning and program choices proceed in the half dark. And this must be progressively illumined.

The task of social accounting in this area would be to clarify and, if possible, to quantify relationships. This does not imply simple cause-and-effect relationships, nor does the analysis require that all costs and benefits be expressed in dollars. As one student of the problem has put it: "No item should be omitted just because it cannot be measured. Its existence, incidence, and where possible, order of magnitude, all help to fill out the picture." [57]

In some cases, dollar values can be ascribed; in others the direction of probable change has to suffice as an approximation. It should be understood, however, that the inclusion of such nonmonetary evaluations implies an agreed-upon set of objectives. The achievement of full employment is such a goal, and the concept of the Great Society implies major efforts to deal with the whole complex of interrelated social problems.

One contribution of social accounting would be to provide the technical underpinnings for reaching these objectives by the shortest route. But more importantly, it would make possible a greatly enlarged view and evaluation of the changing state of our society and, hopefully, serve as a source of dynamic innovation in the quality of American life.[58]

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[57] Nathaniel Lichfield, "Spatial Externalities in Urban Public Expenditures: A Case Study," *The Public Economy of Urban Communities*, ed. Julius Margolis, (Washington: Resources for the Future, 1965), p. 214.

[58] Bertram M. Gross, *The Social State of the Union*, reprinted from November/December 1965 *Trans-action* (St. Louis, Mo.: Washington University, Community Leadership Project).

5

UNUSED MANPOWER RESOURCES AND THEIR DEVELOPMENT

Even in the present period of high and expanding employment, many potential workers are unable to qualify or compete for employment—because of their lack of education and training, cultural and social deprivation, and a variety of other handicaps. The destructive consequences of this waste of human resources for our society, as well as for the individuals involved, are considered in the preceding chapter. Whatever the cost of preparing these people for employment, it is likely to be far less than the alternative cost in terms of public assistance, detention and rehabilitation of delinquents, and other welfare and health services. Furthermore, each individual enabled to enter productive employment of course helps to meet the country's rising manpower requirements.

This chapter is concerned chiefly with the programs already undertaken or needed to help disadvantaged people prepare for and enter employment, especially those authorized by the Congress since 1961. As background for considering these programs, the chapter first presents a few key facts on the groups in need of special help. The accomplishments and limitations of the recently enacted programs and of more longstanding ones aimed at helping the handicapped and other special groups are then considered and recommendations are made on needed directions of future action.

The programs here discussed represent an unprecedented, nationwide effort to aid disadvantaged individuals now jobless or underutilized. General strengthening of education coupled with further progress toward full employment (subjects outside the scope of the present chapter) should, in the long run, diminish the need for many of these programs. But the problems of today's youth and disadvantaged adults cannot be written off on the basis of this uncertain hope for the future. Their needs must be met, to the maximum extent possible, as a matter of democratic right and also as a move to break the vicious cycle of joblessness, ignorance, and poverty, now transmitted all too often from one generation to the next.

The Nation's Unused Manpower

The significant progress made during 1965 in reducing the overall rate of unemployment is recounted in the Review of Current Developments earlier in this report. Despite this progress, there were still close to 3 million jobless people looking for work at the year's end. And of these about 600,000 had been unemployed for 15 weeks or longer. The total number of workers who had one

or more spells of unemployment during 1965 was much greater—probably in excess of 12 million.

Beyond the economic waste implied by these overall figures are the personal and social consequences of the persistent heavy incidence of unemployment in certain groups—young workers, older workers, the uneducated and unskilled, nonwhites, and persons with special handicaps. Thus:

—The rate of unemployment among *young workers* aged 16 to 21 was nearly three times the average for all workers in 1965 (as indicated in the following chapter on Young Workers).

—*Nonwhite workers* had an average unemployment rate of 8.3 percent, double the rate for white workers.

—Unemployment is heaviest among *workers with low educational attainment and lack of skills.* In March 1965, for instance, the unemployment rate for workers with less than a high school education was 6.6 percent, nearly double the rate for those with 4 years of high school or more. And unskilled nonfarm laborers had an unemployment rate of 10.9 percent, well over twice the average for all occupations.

—Studies of the *physically and mentally handicapped* suggest that the unemployment rate among this group is also higher than average. Also, their labor force participation rate is lower than the rate for other workers.

—*Prison releasees* face perhaps the most difficult job-seeking problems of all disadvantaged groups. A recent study indicates that 3 months after their release from prison, nearly 1 out of every 5 still had not been able to find work of any kind, and only 2 out of 5 had worked as much as 80 percent of the time.

—Among *American Indians* the unemployment rate in 1960 was almost three times that for the total labor force and much higher than the rate for Negroes (according to the decennial census, the most recent source of comparative data on unemployment of Indians).

Furthermore, the data on unemployment by no means fully indicate the extent to which the Nation's manpower resources are underutilized (as indicated in the preceding chapter). Besides the nearly 3 million totally unemployed, there were at the end of 1965 about 2.2 million workers who were employed part time involuntarily for economic reasons. And there are considerable numbers of potential workers—especially nonwhites, out-of-school youth, and older people—who are neither working nor looking for work and so are not counted among the unemployed.

How many of this group are discouraged or inhibited from seeking jobs because of discrimination, mental or physical disabilities, cultural and educational handicaps or other barriers to employment is very difficult to estimate. The available data suggest, however, that the number of adult men in the labor force might be increased significantly, were they given accessible employment opportunities in jobs for which they could qualify.[1]

The number of women out of the labor force who could work and would like to do so is still more difficult to appraise. But there are no doubt a considerable number needing but not seeking jobs because they think none (or none with decent wages and working conditions) are available to them.

To this roster of the country's unused manpower resources must be added the unknown but probably sizable number of handicapped people not yet reached by rehabilitation services who could, with such assistance, become productive workers. In addition, there are surely a far greater number of underutilized men and women—workers who have jobs but because of lack of education and training or other obstacles are working below their full potential.

One of the aims of manpower research must be to improve our knowledge of the magnitude and makeup of these groups and the factors preventing or limiting their employment. But even the partial evidence now available makes plain the national loss implicit in these unused human resources and the importance to the economy, as well as to the individual, of coordinated manpower and job development programs.

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[1] *Unused Manpower: The Nation's Loss* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, November 1965), Manpower Research Bulletin No. 10 (advance printing), p. 4.

Programs for Disadvantaged Groups

The Federal Government has long conducted programs for certain groups with severe cultural, physical, and other handicaps. One of the earliest of these programs was that for disabled veterans, which served as the forerunner of the rehabilitation programs for handicapped civilians. Programs aimed at helping reservation Indians overcome their educational and training deficiencies and move toward economic self-sufficiency also had their beginnings many years ago.

The War on Poverty has extended the national concern with remediation to all who live in poverty. But the variety of groups among the poor has once again dictated a series of programs addressed to special groups. Thus, there are several War on Poverty programs for youth (discussed in the chapter on Young Workers) and for farmworkers (discussed in the chapter on that subject).

The Work-Experience Program is the sector of the War on Poverty centrally concerned with training and job development for the adult poor. This program is discussed in the following section, as a prelude to considering the programs under way or needed for specific disadvantaged groups.

PUBLIC ASSISTANCE RECIPIENTS

More than 100,000 unemployed heads of families and other persons on public assistance as well as certain other needy persons are to be given work experience and job training during fiscal year 1966 under the Work-Experience Program. Its basic aim is to help these people achieve economic independence. Now conducted under the Economic Opportunity Act by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, this program builds on and extends the community work and training programs established by the 1962 amendments to the Social Security Act.

Nature of Program

Work-experience projects are conducted by State and local government welfare agencies—in cooperation with libraries, schools, highway departments, and other public agencies—with financing from the Federal Government. Most trainees have been jobless a long time; some have been on relief for years. The projects therefore stress the development of good work habits and positive motivation to take a job or training leading to a job. They often provide health and rehabilitation services. Those who are illiterate may first complete a basic education program and then receive work training in a variety of occupations. Occupations for which women have been trained range from library and medical assistant, beauty operator, and nurse aide to waitress, laundry worker, and kitchen helper. Men have been prepared for such jobs as cabdriver and service-station attendant, rough carpenter and painter, cement handler, landscaper, and groundskeeper.

Trainees are compensated on the basis of family need. In addition, they may receive funds for work clothes, transportation, and other costs related to their participation in a project.

The length of the training period ranges from 2 months to a year, but has averaged about 9 months. Then, trainees may be placed directly in a job, referred to a Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) training program, or in some instances returned to the welfare rolls. The staff responsible for the projects make a special effort to locate job openings and interest employers in hiring individuals who have completed the project.

Magnitude and Results of Program

Some 160 projects in 43 States had been approved by late 1965, and projects were in operation in 35 States. Provision was made under projects financed from fiscal 1965 funds for training about 89,000 people. But the total number who have been or will be helped, directly or indirectly, is much greater than this, since each enrollee has, on the average, three dependents (about 275,000 dependents, altogether).

With the funds available, enrollments can be increased to 109,000 in fiscal year 1966. And the number of dependents benefited is expected to be again about three times the number of enrollees. However, the program will still reach only a fraction of the total number of adults who are eligible for and would benefit from participation in it.

A 1965 amendment to the Economic Opportunity Act (the "Nelson Amendment") was designed to meet part of this need by providing for work-training projects for adults similar to those available for youth (described in the chapter on Young Workers). These projects would make opportunities for useful work training available "to chronically unemployed poor adult workers with poor employment prospects so that their employability may be increased or their education resumed or continued . . ."[2] An allotment of $10 million has been made for this new program for fiscal year 1967.

Expenditures aimed at equipping welfare recipients for employment can be an extremely good investment in strictly dollar terms, let alone the psychological benefits for the individuals and their families. Nearly 12,000 enrollees in work-experience projects who had previously received general assistance or aid to families with dependent children became self-supporting between October 1963 and December 1964, either immediately after their participation in one of these projects or following a subsequent period of MDTA or Area Redevelopment Act (ARA) training. The estimated public assistance payments to these workers and their dependents (who numbered close to 60,000 altogether) had amounted to nearly $1.8 million per month.

OLDER WORKERS

Though the problem of finding employment for older workers is part of the broad problem of achieving full employment for the entire work force, it has special aspects, indicated in a 1965 report to the Congress by the Secretary of Labor.[3]

Discriminatory hiring practices are an important factor in unemployment among workers past 45 years of age. The same factor accounts for the special prevalence of long-term unemployment in the older age groups. Because of their long experience and seniority, older workers have some advantage in holding onto jobs, but once laid off they are likely to have great difficulty getting new ones. Furthermore, the numbers of older people and older workers are increasing. Whereas in 1965 there were 29 million workers aged 45 or over, including nearly 900,000 unemployed, by 1975 the number of workers of this age may reach more than 34 million.

The Secretary of Labor (in the 1965 report to the Congress just referred to) accordingly recommended action in four directions: (1) To eliminate arbitrary age discrimination in employment; (2) to adjust institutional arrangements which work to the disadvantage of older workers; (3) to increase the availability of work for older workers; and (4) to enlarge educational concepts and institutions to meet the needs and opportunities of older age.

Among the many specific recommendations was one calling for an increase in training opportunities for older workers in programs provided under the Manpower Development and Training Act, especially through on-the-job training; for the development of new techniques for training adult workers; and for greater opportunity for basic education, including income supplements to make this education practicable.

The Federal-State employment service system must be relied on as the chief source of the expansion and strengthening of counseling services for older workers and of new job-finding community activities, also recommended in the Secretary of Labor's report. The employment service system, as part of its ongoing program, engages in special counseling and individualized job development services for older workers. These services include visits to employers to encourage and stimulate employment of older workers, as well as other hard-to-place groups, and bringing prospective workers and employers together for interviews. Here again, however, the staff and budget available are too limited to permit specialized services to all who need them.

The passage of the Older American Act of 1965 was a long step forward in determining and meeting the needs of older workers. Focused on finding solutions to the total problems of the older population, the act states as one of its goals the right of such persons to "opportunity for employment with no discriminatory personnel practices because of age." The means of achieving this objective should be among the problems explored in

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[2] See S. 1759 (Washington: 89th Cong., 1st sess., U.S. Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, June 25, 1965), p. 2. Also, see "Statement of Hon. Gaylord Nelson, a U.S. Senator from the State of Wisconsin," in *Conserve Human and Natural Resources of the Nation—Hearing Before the Subcommittee on Employment and Manpower* (Washington: 88th Cong., 2d sess., U.S. Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, August 5, 1964), pp. 46–51.

[3] *The Older American Worker—Age Discrimination in Employment* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, June 1965).

the community planning and research activities and demonstration programs for which grants will be made under the act.

The Department of Labor is endeavoring to move ahead in these directions, within the limits of budgetary resources. More than 10,000 persons aged 45 or older received MDTA training in institutional programs in 1965; an additional 1,000 were enrolled in on-the-job training (OJT) programs. Older men were trained for occupations such as automobile mechanic, welder, cook, carpenter, and electric appliance serviceman; and women, for practical nurse, clerk-typist, nurse aide, cook, salesperson, and a variety of other jobs.

The job development aspects of this program are underlined by the fact that at least two-thirds of the more than 17,000 older workers who completed institutional training since the MDTA program began found training-related jobs, as did the great majority of OJT trainees. Yet, nearly 90 percent of the older trainees were jobless when enrolled.

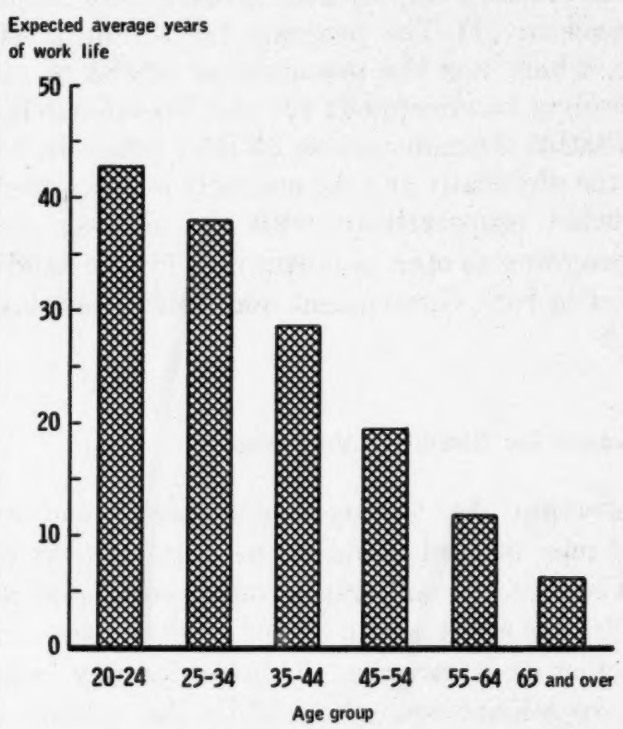
Some of the experimental and demonstration projects conducted under the MDTA have been aimed at the special employment needs of older workers. One such project is operating a counseling clinic in which older workers are advised on how to look for a job. Another has enlisted an employer committee to work with the State Employment Service representative in developing jobs for older unemployed workers in nearby resort areas.

But basically, the key to a solution to older workers' special problems lies with employers—in their understanding of these workers' potential contributions and their great need for jobs. That hiring of older workers can be advantageous from an employer's standpoint is suggested by a recent Department of Labor study. This showed, for example, that a 55-year-old man who takes a new job is likely to stay on it till he retires or dies—or, on the average, for 7 years, which is half a year longer than the average young man of 25 stays on one job. (See chart 13.) Thus, training a man of 55 for a particular job may provide the employer as many or more years of profitable work as would similar training of a young man.[4]

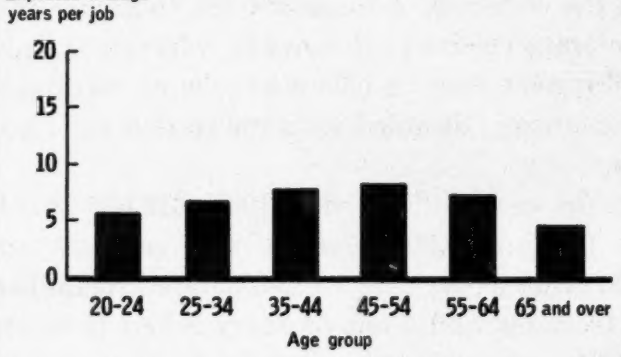
[4] *Job Changing and Manpower Training* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower, Automation and Training, June 1964), Manpower Report No. 10, p. 3.

Chart 13 **Job training is useful at all ages.**

Although work life expectancy for men decreases with age...



Number of years they stay on a job remains high.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

PHYSICALLY AND MENTALLY HANDICAPPED

There are well over 8½ million physically and mentally handicapped people of working age in the United States, according to an estimate made by the U.S. Public Health Service in the early

1960's.[5] Many are not now in the labor force but might be able to work if given rehabilitative services. Those in the labor force often work far below their potential and have incomes at or near the poverty level—underlining their need for treatment, training, and job development.

Government efforts to help the handicapped obtain satisfactory employment involve three major approaches: (1) The program for disabled veterans, which was the precursor of efforts to aid the civilian handicapped; (2) the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration (VRA) program for both the physically and the mentally handicapped, conducted cooperatively with the States; and (3) programs to open opportunities for the handicapped in both Government and private employment.

Programs for Disabled Veterans

Reflecting the Government's special concern about men injured while in the Armed Services, the Veterans Administration offers vocational rehabilitation assistance to all qualified war veterans and other ex-servicemen. This service may begin with vocational counseling while the veteran is still in the hospital and continue throughout the training period and until after he is placed on a job. The Department of Labor cooperates closely with the Veterans Administration to assure that all veterans receive preference in referrals by local Employment Service offices to jobs or retraining opportunities; disabled veterans receive the highest priority.

By the end of fiscal year 1965, 619,000 World War II and 73,000 Korean war veterans and 11,000 other ex-servicemen had entered rehabilitation training, and 3 out of every 5 had been successfully rehabilitated. During fiscal year 1965 alone, some 11,000 veterans were enrolled in training, and about 2,300 were rehabilitated.

The Veterans Administration program for the homebound veteran illustrates how, with intensive work, even the most seriously disabled can be rehabilitated. This small program is for those so disabled as to require training at home (quadriplegics, brain injured, multiply disabled). In order to stimulate these seriously disabled veterans to take advantage of vocational rehabilitation, the Veterans Administration attempts continually to motivate and work with them. The counselor coordinates a team of specialists from various professional fields, who work together in helping each veteran develop solutions to his rehabilitation problems.

Federal-State Vocational Rehabilitation Program

The Federal-State vocational rehabilitation program aims to rehabilitate both physically and mentally handicapped individuals so that they may prepare for and hold paid jobs. The program is operated by the States with Federal financial aid (which may run as high as 75 percent of the total expenditure).

Besides vocational counseling, any necessary medical, psychological and other assistance is provided. The vocational rehabilitation counselor works with the client to assist him in deciding on his vocational objectives. An individualized plan for rehabilitation is developed and all needed supportive services are arranged for. In addition, followup contacts are made with the rehabilitated person even after a suitable job opportunity is developed for him. Actual placement, like all aspects of the vocational rehabilitative process, is done on an individual basis.

About 135,000 persons were rehabilitated (that is, performing satisfactorily on the job or in the home) during fiscal year 1965 under this program. (An additional 3,000 to 4,000 rehabilitations occurred under special research or demonstration projects.) This represented an increase of 13 percent over 1964 and 46 percent over 1961. The largest group of persons rehabilitated had orthopedic or amputation problems; the next largest had mental disorders. About 10 percent had visual impairment.

This program has had a high degree of success in preparing people for regular jobs. About 75 percent of those rehabilitated during 1965 had jobs in the competitive business world at the time their cases were closed, although only 15 percent had had such jobs before rehabilitation. Another 6 percent became self-employed or went into business enterprises managed by the State agency,

[5] Handicapped persons are defined as those with chronic disorders or impairments which limit them in the pursuit of a gainful occupation. The number cited refers only to those aged 17 to 64 and not institutionalized. It is a minimum estimate; the mentally ill and retarded are believed to have been undercounted in the 1961–63 survey on which the figure is based.

and 3 percent worked in sheltered workshops. The remaining 16 percent, most of them housewives, were doing unpaid work at home.

Average weekly earnings of all rehabilitants increased from about $7 before rehabilitation to $44. Moreover, unlike other handicapped workers, who tend to be concentrated in low-skilled manual jobs, these rehabilitants worked largely in service and white-collar jobs (professional and clerical and sales), which offer greater opportunities for employment and advancement.

While the number of persons rehabilitated each year is impressive, there are still great unmet needs. The VRA estimates that there are over 3½ million disabled persons in the United States who are eligible for and might benefit from vocational rehabilitation services. And each year some 450,000 men and women become so disabled as to be eligible for these services.

While private agencies should continue to fill some of this gap, the Federal-State vocational rehabilitation program must shoulder the responsibility for most rehabilitations. Under the present system, which requires some State matching of Federal grants, very uneven efforts are made by individual States. The rehabilitation rate per 100,000 population in fiscal year 1965 for the country as a whole stood at 70, but it varied among States from a high of 218 in West Virginia to a low of 19 in California.

The 1965 amendments to the Vocational Rehabilitation Act authorize sizable increases in grants to the States over the next 3 years. They also provide for construction of rehabilitation facilities and workshops and for the improvement of training services. These amendments should materially reduce the variation in State programs, besides increasing the total number of rehabilitations which can be made in the country as a whole. Hopefully, they will lead also to a substantial increase in rehabilitations of public assistance recipients with handicaps.

A limiting factor which will probably continue to hamper expansion of vocational rehabilitation services, however, is personnel shortages in the professional specialties which compose the vocational rehabilitation team. Vocational counselors, for instance, are scarce and are being called upon to handle increased caseloads. Although the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration has for many years been supporting the training of vocational rehabilitation counselors and related personnel, a still greater training effort is essential to match the growing needs for services.

Job Development Efforts

Besides its support of the vocational rehabilitation program, the Federal Government works to develop jobs for the handicapped in a number of ways.

The U.S. Civil Service Commission makes specific efforts to eliminate barriers and encourage the employment of the disabled. In 1964 alone, about 9,000 physically handicapped workers were appointed to Federal jobs, representing about 2 percent of new hires that year.

A special program has been in operation since the beginning of 1964 to open routine clerical, custodial, and other jobs to the mentally retarded who, though occupationally qualified, would not ordinarily be hired under a civil service system designed to hire the most qualified applicants. The number of retardates placed has risen from a monthly average of 30 in 1964 to 66 in mid-1965.

Most of the 839 retarded persons hired under the special program were still on duty as of late 1965. Their separation rate is no higher than that for Government employees as a whole and is probably somewhat below the average for the repetitive kinds of jobs in which they were employed. The success of the program may be credited largely to the highly individualized placement service provided. Experience under the program has shown that even though an individualized placement service is more difficult and time consuming than regular placement activities, it is important in matching these workers with jobs.

The Federal-State Employment Service also assists in the job development process for disabled veterans and other hard-to-place workers by providing them with testing, counseling, and placement services. During 1965, 288,000 placements of handicapped persons were made, including about 100,000 veterans. Each local employment office is required by law to have a staff member who is specifically responsible for services to the handicapped. In many offices, however, this person has other responsibilities as well, which necessarily limit his efforts to develop jobs for the handicapped. One local office increased its placement of handicapped workers by almost 70 percent

in a single year after a staff member was assigned to this work on a full-time instead of a part-time basis.

Efforts are also underway to expand the work areas open to the handicapped, through experimental studies conducted by the Vocational Rehabilitation Administration of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and by other agencies. Some VRA projects, for example, have been devoted to showing how certain kinds of handicapped workers might be used to do work for which they are not usually considered; others have been concerned with redesigning jobs or production processes so that handicapped workers can perform them; and still others have studied employer and community attitudes and practices toward the handicapped. Other experimental projects have been concerned with improving the mechanics of bringing the worker and job together. Examples are the use of halfway houses as an intermediate stage between the institution and the normal working world for mentally restored persons and the development of detailed job specifications for jobs which the retarded might fill. Also, the Veterans Administration has carried out a large-scale study of the employment adjustment of veterans with psychiatric disability, to provide needed information about the work potential of persons suffering from mental or emotional disorders. The results showed that the large majority of psychiatrically disabled veterans who are available for work are successfully employed in jobs ranging throughout the occupational hierarchy. These findings have provided added impetus and encouragement for recently intensified rehabilitation efforts on behalf of the mentally restored.

The Department of Labor has also sponsored research and demonstration projects in this field under the MDTA. One such project, involving several Federal agencies as well as an industry association, will provide a nationwide on-the-job training program in the laundry industry for about 1,000 mentally retarded persons.

Furthermore, since the late 1940's the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped—a group composed of representatives of industry, labor and other agencies—has worked for the voluntary removal of artificial bars and prejudices and has generally tried to educate private industry to the advantages of employing handicapped workers. Through publications and speeches, awards, conferences, and sponsorship of a National Employ the Handicapped Week, the Committee seeks to develop a climate that will provide equal opportunity for all of the handicapped.

AMERICAN INDIANS

One of the minority groups most in need of training and job development and for whom the Government has special programs is the American Indians. Not only are their unemployment rates high, but many Indian men of working age are not in the labor force.

Remedying this situation is not a simple matter. Most of the country's half million Indians are in geographic areas remote from industrial centers. The traditional Indian culture is not intrinsically job-oriented and does not provide incentives to work for pay like those common to other Americans. And the assistance so far offered to Indians has often been inadequate to overcome the obstacles they face.

Today, job development efforts for Indians take two approaches—that of bringing jobs to the Indian on the reservation and that of encouraging him to move where jobs exist. In both cases, skill training acts as a catalyst.

Education and Training

The generally low level of education of the Indian population is a major barrier in developing jobs for them. In the late 1950's more than 50 percent of Indian students in all types of schools dropped out before graduation. For reservation Indians accustomed to using their tribal tongues, language is another barrier, although English is emphasized in schools operated by the Bureau of Indian Affairs of the U.S. Department of the Interior.

The majority of male Indians are employed in farming, other laboring jobs, or semiskilled operative work. In 1960, only about 1 out of every 8 was in a white-collar occupation, and less than one-sixth were craftsmen.

Currently, efforts are being made to develop salable skills through both institutional and on-the-job training. During fiscal year 1965, the Bureau of Indian Affairs provided vocational training to nearly 5,000 adult Indians. A few thousand Indians have also received training

since 1962 in projects conducted under the Area Redevelopment Act and the Manpower Development and Training Act. However, these efforts represent only a beginning in meeting Indians' total need for skill development.

Job Development on Reservations

The Bureau of Indian Affairs has, since 1957, been working with the various tribes to promote industrial development on and near reservations. Representatives of the Bureau's Branch of Industrial Development contact firms which are planning to expand, take them on site visits, and generally try to interest and assist them in locating on or near reservations.

In addition to the availability of a work force with aptitude for work requiring manual dexterity, superior eye-hand coordination, and adaptability to repetitive work, the Bureau representatives can offer as inducements the possibility of financing for on-the-job training and, even more important, can provide access to capital to help finance the building and equipment of the plant. Many tribes have their own funds to invest. Many can qualify for loans from the Small Business Administration or under the Economic Development Act (as they formerly could under the ARA). The Bureau of Indian Affairs also has a revolving loan fund that has been used for such purposes. The Bureau representative, in addition to bringing prospective manufacturers and local tribal administrators together, sits in on negotiations and provides technical advice throughout.

On the whole, these efforts have been fruitful. In 1963, approximately 30 new plants were in operation or under construction and were employing about 1,800 persons. By the end of September 1965, the number had risen to 58 operating plants employing some 3,200 persons and 6 more plants were under construction. When all plants are in full operation, they are expected to employ about 4,500 persons altogether. While this represents a distinct gain, the numbers of people involved are small, here again, relative to the total need.

Relocation Program

A national relocation program for Indians who want to leave the reservation has also been operated by the Bureau of Indian Affairs since 1952. Experience with this program has shown that Indians can be successfully relocated, but that to do this requires extensive followup services carefully adapted to the individual's needs.

An Indian is accepted under this plan if he is in need and desires to leave the reservation. There must also be reasonable expectation that he will stay in the new community—which is usually one of seven large cities (Los Angeles, San Jose, Oakland, Denver, Chicago, Cleveland, or Dallas) where Bureau representatives have built up employer contacts. Jobs are developed there for the Indian and other family members which will provide them at least a minimum standard of living.

In addition to counseling in preparation for the move, health services are supplied to the entire family. Household goods, as well as the family, are moved at the expense of the Federal Government.

On arrival in the new location, the Indian and his family are provided with temporary housing and subsistence until the first paycheck is received. Besides assistance in finding work, they are given help in locating adequate permanent housing and provided with necessary household equipment, clothing, and work tools. They are also assisted in registering their children in schools, introduced to the supermarket and churches (if they are interested), and brought in contact with other tribesmen in the area. Followup services are provided for as long as 3 years after the family has left the reservation; these may include emergency financial assistance, and trades-training tuition, as well as job placement. Like other movers, the Indian often tries several jobs in the new location before finding one where he will stay.

About 2,000 families or single people were moved from reservations during fiscal 1965. Including family members, the number involved in the moves totaled about 4,500, or slightly over 1 percent of the reservation Indians. Since 1952, when this program was introduced nationally, a total of about 64,000 family members have been moved.

A sizable proportion but by no means all of the Indians moved remain in their new location. Of those relocated in fiscal year 1961, one-third had returned to the reservations by the following December—6 to 18 months after their move from their traditional tribal home.

The programs instituted for the Indians during the last decade have thus shown some notable,

but limited, results. It may be many years, even with more intensive programs, before the American Indian will share proportionately in the prosperity of the country.

The problem of melding the two cultures without destroying the assets of one is not easily accomplished. Meanwhile, there is a need for increasing support of existing training and development programs as well as for expansion of programs that will expose young Indians to more contact with the larger American culture.

FORMER PRISONERS

Special job development assistance is also needed for persons newly released from prison, who are frequently barred from jobs involving trust and faced with other restrictions and prejudices in their search for work. Yet, in many cases, little special assistance is given them in finding jobs and they may reenter the work force with little, if any, improvement in job skills. Some may, in fact, have experienced skill deterioration or obsolescence during their imprisonment. Too often, work and training in correctional institutions are oriented toward institutional maintenance and governmental needs rather than the development of marketable skills.

To help alleviate this situation, Federal statutes were modified during 1965 in several important respects. Furloughs of up to 30 days from Federal institutions may now be given qualified inmates for use in job search, employer interviews, and short-term training courses. Qualified Federal prisoners may also be released for part of each day to work for private employers at regular pay, or to participate in MDTA or other on-the-job training projects.

Some 26 jurisdictions in 19 States also have some form of work-release law covering selected inmates; 7 out of 10 such laws have been passed since 1959. Prison work-release programs permit the institutions to do a better job of preparing their inmates for final release through skill maintenance or enhancement, development of good work habits, and improved adaptation to the social environment. And employers benefit from the use of skills which may be in short supply. These programs also enable the individuals involved to get recent work experience and employer references which may facilitate their subsequent job search. The work experience they obtain may even lead directly to employment after their release.

The employment of former prisoners has been facilitated also through the use of halfway houses. These are small centers located away from the prison in large cities. They are not institutionally oriented but are designed to provide easy transition to the outside world. Staffed with case workers and employment placement officers, they provide special services (counseling and employment assistance, for example) to prisoners expected to be released soon. The prisoners live in the halfway house and work in the community during the last months before release. Since 1961, five such Federal prerelease centers have been set up for youth, and two more are in the advanced planning stage. Similar centers have recently been authorized for adult offenders.

But much more is needed if recidivism is to be minimized and society is to obtain maximum use of these potential workers. Unnecessarily arbitrary restrictions such as those related to the kinds of jobs ex-prisoners are permitted to hold must be relaxed. More flexibility is needed in determining parole eligibility. And more job placement and social counseling service must be made available to former prisoners after their release; there are now only 12 placement officers in all of the Federal prison system, 5 of them in prerelease centers. Above all, more prison time needs to be devoted to updating the skills of inmates, so that they can qualify for remunerative jobs after leaving.

Volunteer local citizens' advisory committees might perform useful services by participating in the prerelease training programs, assisting former prisoners in finding employment, and sponsoring inmates paroled to the community. Aside from the direct assistance they would provide, the activity of such groups should make for more constructive attitudes on the part of both the individuals involved and the communities to which they return.

Another promising approach—the application of vocational rehabilitation techniques to the rehabilitation of prisoners—is being explored in a major new program undertaken by the Departments of Justice and Health, Education, and Welfare. Initially, this program will involve grants for research and demonstration projects in selected cities. These projects will provide individualized counseling, training, medical treatment, job placement, and other services similar to those provided other VRA clients.

Besides these programs for particular disadvantaged groups, a broad attack has been mounted on our national problem of underdeveloped, underutilized human resources. This involves three distinct though interrelated approaches: (1) A national job development campaign, (2) intensified efforts to reach and train the hard-to-employ through training projects conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act, and (3) promotion of efforts to redesign jobs and develop job ladders so as to open more and better employment opportunities to people with limited education.

THE PRESIDENT'S JOB DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

In launching a nationwide Job Development Program in early 1965, President Johnson pointed to the paradox of unfilled job vacancies and unmet needs for services in businesses, homes, farms, and communities at a time when millions of workers were unemployed. The President stressed the need to attack both problems simultaneously by training service workers and developing managerial skills in service occupations. He called for the development of 10,000 jobs a month by July 1965, and a continuing program to capitalize on the employment potential of the anticipated further growth in consumer demand for services.

The Departments of Labor and Commerce were given responsibility for carrying the program forward and for enlisting private participation in its planning and operation, as well as the cooperation of other government agencies—Federal, State and local. The Congress gave legislative authorization to the program in the Manpower Act of 1965, which provides that:

> The Secretary of Labor shall stimulate and assist, in cooperation with interested agencies both public and private, job development programs, through on-the-job training and other suitable methods, that will serve to expand employment by the filling of . . . service and related needs which are not now being met because of lack of trained workers or other reasons affecting employment or opportunities for employment.

The major focus of the Job Development Program has been on the development of on-the-job training opportunities in service and related fields, through projects conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act. On-the-job training involves immediate paid work, and trainees who perform satisfactorily usually stay on the payroll after completion of their training period. Given the Government contribution to the training cost and the technical assistance provided under the MDTA, on-the-job training is clearly one of the most effective methods of developing employment opportunities for hard-to-place individuals.

Some examples of the training projects undertaken in connection with the Job Development Program are as follows:

—The first major contract to develop service jobs was with the Hospital Research and Educational Trust of the American Hospital Association. This provided for on-the-job training of 4,000 unemployed and underemployed persons for hospital occupations in which personnel are in seriously short supply.

—The first sizable involvement of private industry in the program was a contract under which a major automobile company agreed to train 1,000 unemployed workers as automobile mechanics and body repairmen, with a potential for training an additional 1,000 unemployed workers in these occupations later.

—A project unique because it set a new pattern of training potential entrepreneurs was undertaken by a major oil company. This calls for the training of over a thousand unemployed and potentially unemployed workers as service-station managers, who are expected to become independent businessmen.

—A contract with the Journeymen Barbers, Hairdressers, Cosmetologists and Proprietors' International Union of America to train 3,000 barbers in hairstyling is an example of union cooperation in a program to upgrade workers' skills and qualify them for a rapidly growing field of employment.

—Contracts with the trade associations in the laundry industry provide for 1,000 on-

the-job training opportunities for mentally handicapped persons.

—Still other contracts provide for training as cooks, appliance servicemen and repairmen, and building maintenance workers, and for other service occupations with shortages of workers.

By the end of 1965, about 11 months after the inception of the Job Development Program, the Department of Labor had authorized training for about 112,000 individuals in service and related areas. Nearly 2 out of 5 of these training slots (42,000) were in on-the-job training projects, about twice the total of approximately 20,000 on-the-job training slots approved during 1964 in all occupations and industries, including service and related fields.

A substantial share of this increase resulted from a new emphasis on developing on-the-job training contracts with national organizations as well as community groups. More experience with this new approach is needed, however, to make it function most effectively. Contracts with national associations involve subcontracting with each local unit participating, and this has caused delays and other problems in implementing the program. Simplified contractual procedures have now been developed and are expected to assist greatly in promoting the task of training and job development.

The Small Business Administration's (SBA) programs of loans and management assistance to small businesses under the antipoverty program are also making steady progress. By the end of 1965, Small Business Development Centers had been established in 35 communities to provide applicants with counseling, technical assistance, training courses and other aid to help them prepare applications for small business loans. Most of these centers were funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity; the SBA provided the necessary loan funds for the program.

During the program's first 10 months of operation, loans were made in 26 States and the District of Columbia to assist nearly 900 needy individuals either to go into business for themselves or to expand existing businesses. The initial loan ceiling for this program has been reduced from $25,000 to $15,000 to make funds available to a greater number of people in more areas. Many of the loans already granted fall in the $1,000 to $5,000 bracket and the great majority are for less than $15,000.

There is already some evidence that the program is encouraging members of minority groups and other disadvantaged persons to think seriously about business opportunities, although the number who have actually started out in business is still small. Among those who have already received loans, about 40 percent are Negroes and a small number are Indians living on reservations. Hopefully, these loans will establish a pattern of opportunity that will encourage many poor people to aspire to economic self-sufficiency through the operation of a successful small business.

TRAINING OF THE UNEMPLOYED

The fundamental relationship of training to job development, evident in the past year's experience with the Job Development Program, is part of the basic philosophy which gave rise to the Manpower Development and Training Act. Lack of marketable skills has been called the common denominator which unites all groups with very high rates of joblessness. It was, of course, to equip unemployed and underemployed workers with such skills—and thus help to meet the country's need for trained manpower as well as workers' need for jobs—that the MDTA was enacted.

The special programs for young workers undertaken under the MDTA are considered in some detail in the following chapter on Young Workers. And the accomplishments and limitations of the MDTA training programs generally are detailed in other reports.[6] Suffice it to say here that the history of the MDTA program has been one of progressive search for effective means of qualifying the hard-to-employ for employment.

During 1965, substantial progress was made in reaching groups with the most serious job problems. Specifically:

—The proportion of nonwhite trainees in institutional projects rose from about 30 percent in 1964 to about 34 percent in 1965. In the smaller but rapidly expanding OJT program, nonwhites comprised 1 in 5 trainees in

[6] *Manpower Report of the President and A Report on Manpower Requirements, Resources, Utilization, and Training by the U.S. Department of Labor* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, March 1965), pp. 125–140. See also *Manpower Research and Training Under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962*, to be published by the U.S. Department of Labor in March 1966.

both years—indicating a considerable numerical, though not relative, increase.

—Another achievement was an increase in the number of hard-core unemployed who received MDTA training. About two-fifths of the trainees enrolled during 1965 had been out of work 15 weeks or more, roughly double the proportion of jobless workers in this category.

—Amendments to the MDTA—especially those relating to allowances for basic education—have enabled many of the uneducated to participate in training and retraining programs. The proportion of trainees with less than 4 years of high school enrolled in institutional programs was 51 percent in 1965, a very slight rise over 1964. In the OJT program, trainees with less than 4 years of high school have made up about 40 percent of the total in both years.

Strenuous efforts will be made in the year ahead to do much better still in meeting the needs of the hard-core unemployed and other disadvantaged groups. All MDTA training, both institutional and OJT, will emphasize a person-oriented (rather than a job-oriented) approach to a far greater extent than in the past.

This approach requires sophisticated efforts to identify disadvantaged people and to assess each individual's interests, aptitudes, and abilities, in order to determine the plan best suited for meeting his particular needs. Many trainees will require extensive adjustment counseling, basic education, and referral for rehabilitative services of various kinds, as a prelude or adjunct to occupational training.

Because of the comprehensive nature of the special services provided, unit costs per trainee tend to be high in person-oriented programs. Therefore, even though the amount of training funds requested for fiscal year 1967 is about the same as the fiscal 1966 amount, the number of MDTA trainees will decline to 250,000 from the 275,000 anticipated in fiscal 1966. However, the number of OJT trainees included in this total is expected to rise by 25 percent (over the 1966 figure of about 100,000), reflecting the strong emphasis now being placed on this type of training.

The expanded program for the disadvantaged will build on experience gained in a variety of person-oriented programs already underway. Some job orientation is required by the Manpower Development and Training Act, which specifies that training shall be in occupations where there is reasonable expectation of employment. But since the early days of the program, this has been supplemented by special efforts focused on the problems of individuals.

The most comprehensive of the special approaches developed to meet the diversified needs of the unemployed is the so-called multioccupational approach, which permits training in a number of different occupations in one project and thus facilitates gearing the training to the interests and aptitudes of the individual trainee. In addition, these projects normally provide prevocational services—including literacy training.

The experimental and demonstration (E&D) projects conducted under the MDTA have also developed and tested new and sometimes revolutionary techniques of recruitment, testing, counseling, remedial training, job development, and posttraining services. These projects have shown that a person-oriented approach can be effective in increasing employability among even the most disadvantaged. The number served directly by these E&D projects is, almost by definition, small. Thus, the 67 E&D projects involving on-the-job training for disadvantaged groups in fiscal year 1965 served only about 5,400 trainees. And the number of individuals who received special testing and counseling services in such projects during 1965 was slightly over 28,000.

But the significance of these projects extends far beyond the individuals served directly. Their pathfinding work has already paved the way for some of the most important advances in the MDTA program, including the multioccupational approach.[7] And intensified efforts are currently being made by the Department of Labor to insure that the innovations and findings of E&D projects are rapidly given general application in programs concerned with training of the disadvantaged.

REDESIGN OF JOBS AND HIRING REQUIREMENTS

The development of jobs for the disadvantaged is made more difficult by the rather general rise in educational requirements for employment.

[7] See the chapter on Young Workers for a further discussion of E&D projects and their significance.

Workers in the United States had an average of 12.2 years of schooling in 1965, as compared with 12.0 years in 1959 and 10.9 years in 1952. And the figure is expected to rise even higher within the next decade.

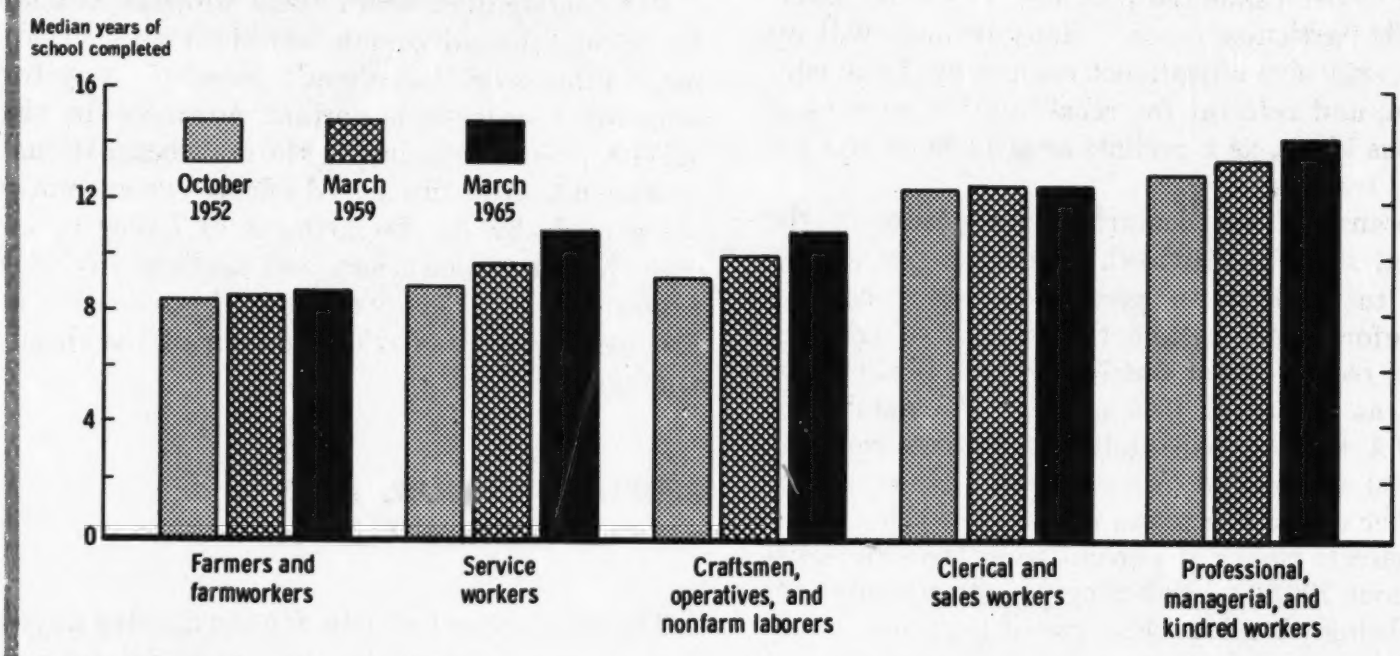
Almost every major occupational group has shared in the general educational upgrading in recent years. The average level of educational attainment has risen rapidly even among laborers and other occupational groups where educational requirements are not considered exacting (as shown in chart 14).

The general upward trend in workers' levels of education is, in part, a reflection of the growing complexity of our technology. For a large and growing proportion of jobs, workers must have language and mathematical skills and, often, either a body of technical knowledge or the capacity to absorb it. Also, employers have reacted to the availability of an increasingly well-educated labor force by adjusting their hiring requirements upward. The high school diploma has become a common screening device in employee selection even for jobs which can be performed satisfactorily by workers with less education.

The effect of these trends is, of course, to make it increasingly difficult for workers without a good education to obtain entry jobs or qualify for advancement. And their job-finding problems are being further aggravated by the changing occupational distribution of employment. The sharpest employment gains are taking place in professional and other occupations with relatively high educational requirements, while laboring and other low-skilled jobs have, at best, slow employment growth (as indicated in the Review of Current Developments). Since the rate of professional training has not kept pace with the demand in many fields, qualified personnel are scarce in many professions and also in other specialized occupations.

Action of two kinds with respect to job requirements and job design could do much to relieve this situation. Further progress is needed in restructuring jobs so as to permit increased use of subprofessional personnel and other assistants, and also in eliminating artificial hiring specifications which unnecessarily restrict employment of workers with limited education.

Chart 14 **Educational attainment is increasing in virtually every occupational group.**



Note: Data refer to employed persons 18 years old and over in the civilian labor force.
Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

The field of health services is one in which pioneering efforts at job redesign have already borne fruitful results and are continuing. Chronic shortages of personnel in health professions, reported for many years, have been alleviated by the employment of workers in new occupations with less rigorous educational and training requirements. These aides and technicians have relieved the professionals of routine tasks, besides handling the steadily increasing volume of medical technician work. Since the demand for health care is likely to rise further as a result of the recently enacted Medicare legislation and because of population growth, a great increase in the supply of both professional and nonprofessional health workers will be required in the near future. And given appropriate training, many unemployed people can qualify for nonprofessional health jobs—as is indicated by the success of MDTA programs in preparing workers for such jobs as nurse aide and practical nurse.

The use of subprofessional assistants has not gone as far in other areas of community service as in the health field, but it has been stimulated and given a new dimension by the War on Poverty. The wide cultural distance between the poor and the counselors, teachers, and other professional workers who are trying to help them has become highly visible. Because of the need for intermediaries who can communicate effectively with both groups, the Office of Economic Opportunity has pioneered in developing new kinds of jobs to be staffed by people from impoverished backgrounds (the so-called "indigenous poor"). By late 1965, about 8,000 members of minority groups and poor families were employed in Community Action Projects in helping positions such as health and child care, home management, neighborhood, and recreation aides.

In a related development, the Civil Service Commission is encouraging Federal agencies to "re-engineer" some entry-level professional, administrative, clerical, and skilled trades positions to develop jobs which can be filled by people with less training.

Redesigning jobs to provide entry positions for the disadvantaged is but a first step in the job development process. The "new careers" concept envisions also the establishment of career ladders upon which individuals may advance from entry jobs through intermediate positions to subprofessional and possibly professional status.[8] The existence of this kind of continuum—for example, from teaching aide to teaching assistant and conceivably even to teacher—would permit those with little skill to aspire to higher level positions on the basis of experience and further education and training. Experience has demonstrated that once a worker from a deprived background enters an occupation that offers him an opportunity to be of immediate service, he tends to be motivated to accept further training and responsibility.

A number of experimental and demonstration projects conducted under the MDTA have also involved efforts to define new jobs or reshape old ones so as to open more entry level possibilities for the disadvantaged. For example, one project provides for an on-the-job training program for the new job of trailer maintenance worker. Another recent project is designed to train counseling interns and human-service aides. Projects have been undertaken also to test how the "new career" concept is working in education, recreation, and child care. The results of these projects should, when available, be a guide to future efforts to develop subprofessional positions for disadvantaged people.

Another question which needs to be explored fully in future projects is the extent to which on-the-job training can be regarded as an alternative to formal education for subprofessional assistant jobs. If real advances are to be made in utilizing the disadvantaged in positions of this kind, it is essential to develop ways acceptable to the professions by which previously untrained workers may, through a combination of on-the-job training and special schooling, attain recognized standing in these subprofessional occupations.

COMMUNITY PROGRAMS

The urgency of a many-faceted approach to job and human resources development in slum communities goes without saying in view of the violence that has occurred in some of our cities. The root causes are exemplified by the situation in the Watts area in Los Angeles, California.[9] When the

[8] See Arthur Pearl and Frank Riessman, *New Careers for the Poor* (New York: The Free Press, 1965), pp. 13–19.

[9] *Violence in the City—An End or a Beginning?* (Los Angeles: Governor's Commission on the Los Angeles Riots, December 2, 1965).

Governor's Commission explored the reasons for this tragic explosion in August 1965, it found that the fundamental causes included:

—Not enough jobs to go around and, by a wide margin, not enough jobs for untrained Negroes.

—Not enough schooling to overcome the special disadvantages of the Negro child.

The report found that these problems were exacerbated by the generally poor state of health of the residents of Watts, their inadequate housing, and by what may well be the least adequate network of public transportation in any major city. But among all these factors, the Governor's Commission reported that the most damaging was the very high rate of unemployment, which was about two to three times the average for white workers in Los Angeles County. The commission estimated that among the 160,000 unemployed workers in the county, there were some 25,000 Negroes and an equal number of Mexican-Americans. And even among the Negroes who had some work, all too often employment was intermittent.

In recommending measures to alleviate the still dangerous situation in Watts, the commission gave first priority to employment—to a concerted effort on the part of all sectors in the community, public and private, to develop jobs for the most distressed citizens. This recommendation was tacit recognition of the need for developing community-based programs to deal with the problems of persistent poverty and dependency. Inasmuch as the lack of adequate transportation facilities handicaps residents of disadvantaged areas in seeking and holding jobs, attending schools, and fulfilling other needs (only 14 percent of the families in Watts are car owners as against at least 50 percent elsewhere within Los Angeles County), the commission also recommended drastic measures to provide improved public transportation in the county.

The Community Action Program (CAP), which is a central part of the War on Poverty, is designed to stimulate and support overall planning and action against poverty by local communities. This program is local, comprehensive, and selective. It is local in the sense that it is firmly grounded in the principle of local community management of its programs and establishment of goals; comprehensive in that it seeks to address a broad range of programs; and selective in that it deals with specific target groups of disadvantaged people.

Federal CAP projects are now in operation in all 50 of the largest cities in the United States as well as in many smaller communities and rural areas. These projects are generally confined to inner-city slum areas and isolated pockets of rural areas where poverty is acute. Some projects are aimed at particular age groups; others concentrate on providing reading, skill training, cultural enrichment, health services, or other types of specialized assistance in particular fields. Still others are intended to establish an institutional framework within which other programs can operate more effectively.

These projects mount an integrated attack on current problems. They make services available not only to adults but also to children and young people, to help them to become independent, productive adults by attending today to their physical and psychological well-being.

The Department of Labor is also moving ahead with plans for broadly based community programs of Human Resources Development to aid individuals in groups with the highest unemployment rates and least ability to compete for the jobs that are available. A Labor Department Selected Cities Task Force has been established to determine the general guidelines to be followed in conducting the Human Resources Development Program. Members of the Task Force have been assigned specific responsibility as "city coordinators" for the Department's manpower programs in 21 major metropolitan areas. As programs develop and needs arise, "city coordinators" will be assigned to additional areas. Their principal objectives are: (1) To determine how the total departmental resources can be most effectively directed toward solving the specific employment and training problems of the unemployed in each city and (2) to speed up action on new manpower programs and services for the disadvantaged groups and hard-core unemployed.

The kind of aid that will be available through the Human Resources Development Program is suggested by the services recently added in the Los Angeles area. Included among these are the assignment of additional Employment Service staff to the joint State Agency Service Center in the Watts area; a grant of $1.1 million to open 3 new Youth Opportunity Centers in the South Cen-

tral area of Los Angeles; funding of an MDTA training program for 1,500 workers at a cost of over $2.4 million; development of on-the-job training contracts with the Los Angeles Urban League and the Los Angeles Joint Custodial Maintenance Council to provide training for 1,300 workers at an approximate cost of $673,000; assignment by the California Division of Apprenticeship Standards of a sizable staff to develop OJT programs in Los Angeles; and approval of a new experimental and demonstration contract with the Westminister Neighborhood Association, Inc., jointly with the Office of Economic Opportunity, to provide intensive counseling and related services for 650 disadvantaged youth.

The Human Resources Development Program, as envisaged by the Secretary of Labor, is an effort to "compensate for disadvantage," and would focus on the unemployed as individuals, on a case-by-case basis. He has suggested that a comprehensive roster be obtained listing the unemployed in the community by name and address. Discussions with the unemployed would elicit information on "what their abilities and desirabilities are, and what training they need as individuals to make them useful to themselves and the community."

A first experimental project of this kind was launched in three slum areas of Chicago in December 1965. The Departments of Labor and Health, Education, and Welfare and the Office of Economic Opportunity are cooperating to provide the training and other services needed to increase the employability of persons in the target areas.

Conclusions and Recommendations

In total, the human resources and job development programs just outlined add up to a far-reaching and innovative national effort directed toward a common goal—to enable the millions of disadvantaged people now jobless or underutilized to become productive workers. Some of these programs are well established and provide many insights which can be drawn upon in planning future action. Others are so new and experimental that more experience is needed to indicate their full potentialities and how they should be changed or strengthened.

Two broad conclusions are already evident, however. First, the overall magnitude of these programs, though substantial, is still well below that required to serve all the disadvantaged people needing training, job development, and other services. To meet their needs fully will demand enlarged and coordinated efforts by government at all levels and also by employers, unions, community agencies, and educational and training institutions.

Second, because disadvantaged people have such widely varied characteristics and problems, programs particularized to the needs of different groups—and even of different individuals—are the only effective answer to their problems. Within the context of the national Human Resources Development Program called for by the Secretary of Labor, many new approaches and program improvements will be required to meet the needs of specific groups. The following recommendations focus on some of the areas in which there is immediate need for strengthening, supplementation, or redirection of programs:

—The need for *extended work-training programs for the hard-to-employ* is apparent from the discussion earlier in this chapter. It is important to maintain and, if possible, expand the Work-Experience Program and related programs for disadvantaged adults, to the maximum permitted by budgetary limitations.

—*The needs of older workers* deserve considerable priority in the planning of training and work programs and the selection of enrollees for them. Consideration should be given also to developing experimental and demonstration programs which would test the feasibility of using older workers in new kinds of jobs—for example, as aides in a Senior Health Corps specializing in work with older people. These new programs should be coordinated with the experimental programs in this area which are being sponsored by the

Office of Economic Opportunity—including the health aide program to be administered by the U.S. Public Health Service and the Foster Grandparent Program of the Administration on Aging.

—*The physically and mentally handicapped* remain a seriously underutilized human resource, despite the great progress already made in their rehabilitation. It is important that the authorized expansion in the Federal-State vocational rehabilitation program be fully implemented, with emphasis on strengthening of programs in States now lagging in provision of rehabilitation services. Since a shortage of qualified professional personnel is one of the factors hampering expansion of these services, the problem of increasing training rates and possibly also of improving utilization of professional personnel deserves continued earnest attention by training institutions and employing agencies, with support from the Federal Government.

—*American Indians* also need expanded training and job development programs to achieve economic self-sufficiency. This most disadvantaged minority group should be given full consideration in the planning of MDTA training, regional development, and related programs. It is even more important that the special training, job development, and relocation programs of the Bureau of Indian Affairs be maintained and strengthened.

—*Strengthened training and job adjustment programs for prisoners and parolees* are another urgent need, to promote rehabilitation of prisoners and their conversion into productive workers and citizens. Steps which would be helpful include the establishment of more halfway houses for both youth and adults, extension of work-release programs, increase in counseling and placement staffs available for work with prisoners scheduled for release, and further development of citizens' committees to promote community cooperation in opening job opportunities to former prisoners. Further experimentation with occupational training programs for prisoners, both in and outside prisons, is also indicated.

—In developing jobs for disadvantaged workers generally, no more effective step can be taken than *expansion of on-the-job training programs* for them. Accordingly, the MDTA program for fiscal year 1967 should and will feature a major increase in OJT projects and trainees; OJT trainees may represent about half of all MDTA trainees in fiscal 1967, a much higher proportion than in previous years.

—In both on-the-job and institutional training programs, a dual focus is now called for—on *training to meet skill shortages* and on *programs tailored to the needs of disadvantaged individuals.* Some shift in emphasis in MDTA training programs is needed to serve these objectives as effectively as possible within the limits of available resources. It is recommended and planned that, in fiscal year 1967, 40 percent of all MDTA trainees be disadvantaged adults and another 25 percent disadvantaged youth, and that the remaining 35 percent of MDTA training be directed to meeting skill shortages. Greatly needed also is a much broader increase in training opportunities for disadvantaged youth and adults by private employer action.

—Wider availability of the *counseling and placement services of public employment service offices* would also aid in employment of the hard-to-employ. Consideration should be given to setting up additional offices in slum areas, and to providing employment services on a mobile basis both in slum sections of cities and in small communities and rural areas. Special efforts are called for to reach and serve people with job market disadvantages, on an individualized basis and in cooperation with other community agencies.

—A coordinated attack on the *root causes of unemployment and poverty in our urban ghettos* is one of the most urgent tasks facing the Nation. In his message to the Congress in January 1966 transmitting recommendations for city demonstration programs, the President pointed to the need for concentration and coordination of all available resources to overcome urban blight and its accompanying human costs. With the Federal grants-in-

aid recommended by the President, cities should be able to move ahead rapidly in developing demonstration projects, building on the beginnings already made through the Community Action Program and through education, training, and other projects already mentioned in this chapter.

These demonstration programs will provide not only for large additions to the supply of low- and moderate-cost housing and other physical reconstruction of the community but also for development of its human resources. Thus, the President's recommendations specify that physical reconstruction and rehabilitation should be combined with effective social programs throughout the rebuilding process; the human costs of reconstruction and relocation should be reduced and new opportunities for work and training developed; and maximum opportunities for employment of residents of demonstration areas should be offered in all phases of programs.

In view of recent findings that lack of adequate transportation from slum areas to localities where there are job opportunities has been a serious barrier to employment for residents of some slum areas, this is an aspect of the problem which should not be lost sight of. Consideration might be given, for example, to a demonstration project involving the provision of public transportation directly from a slum area to a growing industrial center—with coordinated arrangements for MDTA training of slum residents in the needed skills and for outreach employment services to inform them of the new opportunities available and to followup on their training and job placement.

6

YOUNG WORKERS

The problem of jobless youth, though somewhat relieved during 1965, demands continued national attention. Rapid gains in employment brought a moderate drop in unemployment of youth aged 16 to 21—to 12.5 percent from 14 percent in 1964.[1] This was no small accomplishment in view of the great influx of young people into the work force last year. Nevertheless, the youth unemployment rate was still almost three times that for all workers, and the unemployment rate for nonwhite youth was a shocking 21 percent, nearly twice that for white youth.

Growth in the youth population will be substantial in the years ahead, though less dramatic than in 1965. And other economic and social factors will continue to complicate the job-finding problems of disadvantaged youth. For example:

—The most rapid growth in employment will tend to be in occupations requiring high school education or above, for which large numbers of disadvantaged youth cannot qualify. Opportunities in lower level jobs are expected to be much more limited.

—Employment on farms will continue to decline, leading to a further rural-to-urban population shift. This will move more poorly educated youth, including many nonwhites, into cities, where they have no easy means of entry into employment and where they must compete with young people who have had better educational opportunities.

—Partly because of this farm-to-city migration, it will be difficult to eradicate city slums, where poor, uneducated families cluster, all too often transmitting to their children a pattern of lack of education, low-paid and irregular work, frustration and failure.

National concern about youth unemployment and juvenile delinquency, which stem from this total situation, has led in the last few years to a notable series of programs aimed at meeting youth needs. It was also one of the reasons for the great educational legislation enacted by the Congress during the same period.

The new youth programs have already helped to mitigate and control the potentially explosive problem of jobless youth. These programs have three different though related goals: (1) To help disadvantaged out-of-school youth overcome their many handicaps and qualify for employment, (2) to keep potential dropouts who are from poor families in school, and (3) to develop more jobs for youth and place young people in them.

Several segments of the War on Poverty—the Job Corps, the out-of-school program of the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC), the youth services of the Community Action Program—are aimed basically at rehabilitation of out-of-school youth. By providing opportunities for work experience and offering many individualized services, they seek to repair the deep-rooted cultural and personal handicaps and the educational and

[1] For a further discussion of changes in employment and unemployment of youth and other groups during 1965, see Review of Current Developments earlier in this report. This review includes a discussion of the effects of the defense program and the increased military buildup on the employment situation.

training deficiencies of the most disadvantaged young people. The special youth programs conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act likewise serve disadvantaged out-of-school youth; they emphasize occupational training, but also provide basic education and many other services.

Programs to keep potential dropouts in school are the NYC program for in-school youth and the work-study program conducted under the Vocational Education Act of 1963. Both these programs provide part-time work for impoverished students who would otherwise be most unlikely to finish high school. Though still short of meeting the total need, these and the other remedial programs together constitute an entirely new dimension of effort on behalf of disadvantaged youth.

The Neighborhood Youth Corps, while serving its primary purpose of rehabilitation, has at the same time provided jobs for youth. In the summer of 1965, NYC work-experience projects employed almost 300,000 of the young people then flooding into the job market.

Still more important in developing jobs for youth was the 1965 Youth Opportunity Campaign launched by the President. He asked employers to provide a million additional employment opportunities for young men and women last summer, and this challenge was successfully met. The youth services of the Federal-State Employment Service have also been greatly strengthened—another long step forward in job development efforts and counseling and placement services for youth.

For hope of a long-run solution to the interlocking problems of youth unemployment, lack of education, and poverty, however, one must look to the recent educational legislation. Great advances in general and vocational education at all levels and for all groups, including the most disadvantaged, have been made possible by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, the Higher Education Act of 1965, the Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, and other new legislation. Using this financial assistance, States and local communities will be able to give young people still in school increasingly extensive and effective educational preparation for work and citizenship.

This chapter first outlines the dimensions of the youth employment and unemployment problems to which the new programs are addressed. Against this background, the second part of the chapter discusses these youth programs and the ways in which they need to be strengthened and supplemented. The central role of education in the solution of youth problems and the progress in this direction made possible by the new legislation are considered in the third section. Finally, there is a summary of major conclusions and recommendations as to needed directions of action.

Employment and Unemployment of Youth

Six out of every 10 young men and more than 4 out of every 10 young women aged 16 to 21 were working or looking for work during 1965. These young workers, numbering 9.1 million altogether, made up 12 percent of the country's work force. But the 1.1 million who were unemployed represented a third of all jobless workers. (See table 18.)

Another half million youth were employed only part time (less than 35 hours a week) because of slack work or other economic reasons beyond their control. They constituted more than 1 in 5 of all persons working part time involuntarily.

STUDENT WORKERS AND OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH

The majority of young workers are out-of-school youth, who usually need and seek full-time jobs. Students represented only 35 percent of the young people aged 16 to 21 who were employed or seeking work in October 1964, the latest date for which information on school status is available. (See table 19.) They were in the majority only among the younger teenage workers (representing about four-fifths of those aged 16 to 17).

Why do these students work? For some, a job

TABLE 18. EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF PERSONS 16 TO 21 YEARS OLD COMPARED WITH PERSONS 14 YEARS OLD AND OVER, BY SEX, 1965

[Numbers in thousands]

Age and sex	Civilian labor force			Unemployed			At work part time for economic reasons	
	Number	Percent distribution	Percent of population	Number	Percent distribution	Percent of labor force	Number	Percent distribution
14 YEARS AND OVER								
Total	75,635	100.0	56.6	3,456	100.0	4.6	2,208	100.0
Men	49,014	64.8	77.4	1,980	57.3	4.0	1,219	55.2
Women	26,621	35.2	37.9	1,476	42.7	5.5	988	44.8
16 TO 21 YEARS								
Total	9,149	12.1	50.9	1,143	33.1	12.5	471	21.3
Men	5,217	6.9	60.5	628	18.2	12.0	272	12.3
Women	3,932	5.2	42.0	515	14.9	13.1	199	9.0

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

TABLE 19. LABOR FORCE AND UNEMPLOYMENT FOR PERSONS 16 TO 21 YEARS OLD, BY SCHOOL STATUS, AGE, COLOR, AND SEX, OCTOBER 1964

[Numbers in thousands]

Age, color, and sex	In school			Not in school		
	Civilian labor force	Unemployed		Civilian labor force	Unemployed	
		Number	Percent of labor force		Number	Percent of labor force
Total, 16 to 21 years	2,928	301	10.3	5,451	695	12.7
16 and 17 years	1,717	205	11.9	478	95	19.9
18 and 19 years	687	64	9.3	2,235	320	14.3
20 and 21 years	524	32	6.1	2,738	280	10.2
White	2,634	241	9.1	4,665	535	11.5
Men	1,634	130	8.0	2,414	262	10.9
Women	1,000	111	11.1	2,251	273	12.1
Nonwhite	294	60	20.4	786	160	20.4
Men	192	31	16.1	424	77	18.2
Women	102	29	[1] 28.4	362	83	22.9

[1] The sampling variability of this figure is very high because the civilian labor force base is only 102,000.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

merely means extra spending money. But many thousands become workers because of their families' dire economic straits or in order to finance their continued education. About a quarter of a million student workers in 1964 were from families with a total annual income, including that of the student himself, of less than $3,000—an income level representing poverty for urban families with four or more members.

Among college students, the high cost of higher education makes employment essential for many from middle-income as well as low-income families. Nearly one-third (600,000) of all young men (14 to 24) attending college full time were also in the work force in October 1964. About 1 in every 6 of these full-time students working in nonfarm jobs was employed full time—probably owing to economic necessity in many cases, in view of the difficulty of maintaining such a schedule.

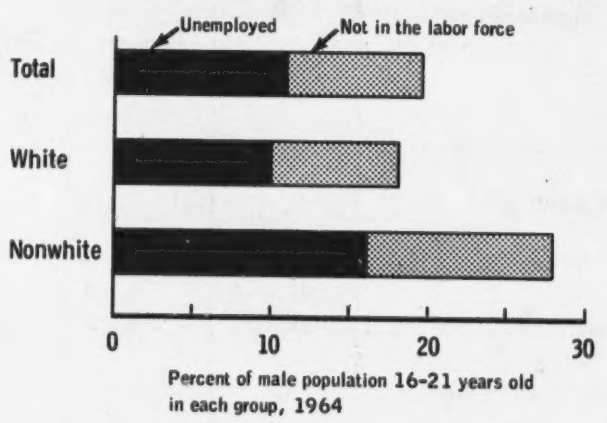
The newly increased provisions for scholarships and subsidized loans to college students (discussed later in this chapter) should reduce the number who carry this double burden of full-time work and full-time study. At the same time, the increased opportunities for part-time work opened to high school and college students from poor families (under the new programs also discussed later in the chapter) can mean continued education for many youth who would otherwise drop out of school.

For most young men and the majority of young women, working for a livelihood becomes a matter of central concern upon the ending of their formal schooling. Yet 700,000, or 13 percent, of all out-of-school youth in the labor force in October 1964 were unemployed (table 19). This unemployment rate was substantially above that for students (10 percent). When young people who are still in school cannot find work quickly, they may stop looking for jobs and thus disappear from the labor force and the unemployment figures. But out-of-school youth are generally under financial and psychological pressures to continue seeking work.

Nevertheless, large numbers of out-of-school youth are not even looking for work. One out of every 12 of the white young men no longer in school was not in the labor force in late 1964. Among nonwhites, the proportion was even higher (1 out of every 8). As chart 15 shows, nearly a fifth of the white and well over a fourth of the nonwhite young men who were not in school were also not working (counting those looking for jobs as well as those out of the labor force).

Chart 15

Proportion of young men out of school and not working is especially high among nonwhites.



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

Why are these young men not seeking work? In February 1963 (the last date for which such information is available), nearly one-fifth of the young men in this situation were ill or disabled; this figure undoubtedly includes some who would have been able to work, given appropriate rehabilitative services. Another fifth were waiting to enter the Armed Forces. Nearly one-fourth were taking job training. The others (35 percent) were out of the labor force for a variety of reasons, including the belief that they could not find jobs. Of all the young men out of the labor force who were not already taking training, over half expressed an interest in doing so.

Young women out of school have even higher rates of unemployment than young men (14 percent compared with 12 percent in October 1964). The proportion neither working nor looking for work is much higher among the young women (44 percent, close to five times the rate for young men), primarily because of marriage and family responsibilities. Compared with older women, however, these young women in their late teens and early twenties have a high rate of labor force participation. In the period after school and before the birth of their first child, many young women have urgent need for jobs—not only to support themselves but also, if possible, to put

away savings and to gain experience which will improve their opportunities for employment in later life.

WORK EXPERIENCE AND JOB CHANGING

The majority of jobless young people are not new workers. Many have periods of unemployment—often prolonged and discouraging—before finding their first jobs. But two-thirds of the young men and over half the young women unemployed in 1964 had previously held full-time jobs. These figures include student workers; if limited to out-of-school young people, the percentages would probably be higher.

Most young workers who leave their jobs do so for economic reasons beyond their control. Those who quit jobs voluntarily in the hope of finding better ones are much fewer. This is shown by the following figures for out-of-school youth aged 16 to 21 who once worked full time but were jobless in February 1963:

Reasons for leaving job	Percent distribution: Young men	Young women
Total	100	100
Economic [1]	46	26
Improvement in status [2]	18	15
Termination of temporary job	11	25
Illness or disability	6	2
Household responsibilities	1	22
Fired	4	---
Other reasons	14	11

[1] Included, among others, slack work, no more work available, and the firm had moved or gone out of business.

[2] Included, among others, to earn more money, hours too long, work too hard or unpleasant, and to find a job where advancement opportunities were better.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

Some job changing and consequent unemployment is inevitable when boys and girls are starting their work careers. But under present conditions, much of this job shifting is uninformed (or misinformed) and wasteful. Young people clearly need more help in preparing for and locating jobs with good prospects of steady, satisfying, and progressive employment.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF SCHOOL DROPOUTS

Young people who drop out of school before completing high school, or sometimes even elementary school, have a special handicap in competing for jobs. Unless this is offset by remedial education and training, the handicap is likely to become steadily more severe as time goes on.

Though the proportion of young people graduating from high school is rising, 3 million, or 45 percent, of the 16- to 21-year-old youth out of school in February 1963 had not completed high school (table 20). Of the nonwhite out-of-school youth, 3 out of every 5 lacked high school diplomas.

This is not the whole story. Nearly a fourth of the dropouts had completed no more than the 8th grade, and 2 out of 3 had left school before completing the 10th grade. Over 1 million (of the total of 3 million) had dropped out before they were 16, and 400,000 when they were 14 or under. And around 40 percent were below the normal grade for students of their age when they left school.[2] Clearly, an effective "back to school" program must recognize the need to repair major educational deficiencies and, often, to use new educational tools and techniques for this purpose.

Dropouts typically leave school too early to obtain a significant amount of vocational education, and their lack of general education—in many cases, even of basic verbal and arithmetic skills—makes it very difficult to get such training later on. Thus the gap widens—only 10 percent of the dropouts in the February 1963 survey had received formal training since leaving school, compared with 30 percent of the high school graduates.

Reasons for Dropping Out of School

The reasons young people give for dropping out of school frequently overlap and are likely to describe the surface reasons rather than the real causes. Poor academic performance, adverse social climate in the school, and the economic need of the student and his family—three major reasons advanced—frequently operate together.

In the February 1963 survey, the largest group (45 percent) of young men reported that they had dropped out because they were not interested in or were having difficulties in school. Another 38 percent left because of a desire to go to work, or because of financial problems in the family or other economic reasons. Among young women,

[3] This estimate includes only those dropouts who left school at age 15 to 18, who represented four-fifths of the 3 million dropouts.

the most frequent reason for leaving school was marriage or pregnancy. (See table 21.)

Nonwhite young men particularly often leave school to go to work and for other economic reasons. Nearly 50 percent said they dropped out principally for such reasons, compared with 36 percent of the white youth. Partly a result of Negro family poverty, the difference probably also reflects the special difficulty Negro young people have in finding jobs and the consequent pressure on them to leave school at any point when they have a job offer.

The relation of family poverty to children's failure to complete school is apparent also from 1960 census data. For example, 1 out of 4 boys aged 16 to 17 from families with incomes under $3,000 were out of school in 1960, compared with only 1 out of every 10 from families with incomes

TABLE 20. OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH 16 TO 21 YEARS OLD, BY YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED, COLOR, SEX, AND AGE, FEBRUARY 1963

[Numbers in thousands]

Color, sex, and age	Total out-of-school youth [1]	Youth who completed less than 4 years of high school		
		Number	Percent distribution	Percent of total
ALL PERSONS				
Both sexes	6,708	3,046	100.0	45.4
16 and 17 years	658	608	20.0	92.4
18 and 19 years	2,752	1,224	40.2	44.5
20 and 21 years	3,298	1,214	39.9	36.8
Men	2,669	1,371	45.0	51.4
16 and 17 years	247	238	7.8	96.4
18 and 19 years	1,071	543	17.8	50.7
20 and 21 years	1,351	589	19.3	43.6
Women	4,039	1,675	55.0	41.5
16 and 17 years	411	369	12.1	89.8
18 and 19 years	1,681	682	22.4	40.6
20 and 21 years	1,947	625	20.5	32.1
NONWHITE				
Both sexes	1,001	596	19.6	59.5
16 and 17 years	134	124	4.1	92.5
18 and 19 years	419	247	8.1	58.9
20 and 21 years	448	225	7.4	50.2
Men	401	266	8.7	66.3
16 and 17 years	50	49	1.6	(2)
18 and 19 years	187	125	4.1	66.8
20 and 21 years	164	92	3.0	56.1
Women	600	330	10.8	55.0
16 and 17 years	84	75	2.5	(2)
18 and 19 years	232	122	4.0	52.6
20 and 21 years	284	133	4.4	46.8

[1] Excludes persons who were college graduates.

[2] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

TABLE 21. MAIN REASON FOR DROPPING OUT OF SCHOOL, BY COLOR AND SEX, FEBRUARY 1963

[Persons 16 to 21 years old]

Color and sex	Number (thousands)	Percent distribution								
		Total	Not interested in school	Poor grades	Difficulties with school authorities	Wanted to go to work	Economic [1]	Marriage or pregnancy	Own illness	Other
Total	3,046	100.0	21.3	8.1	4.6	7.7	18.2	23.9	5.5	10.8
Men	1,371	100.0	24.4	13.2	7.4	12.1	26.2	2.8	4.0	9.9
Women	1,675	100.0	18.9	4.3	2.4	4.3	12.1	40.0	6.6	11.5
White	2,450	100.0	24.1	8.2	3.5	7.5	17.8	22.9	5.4	10.6
Men	1,105	100.0	28.9	13.1	6.2	11.1	24.8	3.5	3.5	8.9
Women	1,345	100.0	20.3	4.4	1.5	4.8	12.4	37.8	6.9	11.9
Nonwhite	596	100.0	10.1	8.1	8.6	8.2	19.8	27.7	5.8	11.7
Men	266	100.0	6.3	13.9	12.3	16.3	31.3	--------	6.0	13.9
Women	330	100.0	13.0	3.6	5.8	2.1	10.9	48.8	5.8	10.0

[1] Includes unemployment in family, to support family, could not afford to go to school, needed money, and similar reasons.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

of $7,000 or over. However, it appears that the education of the family head had even more to do with the young people's educational record than the family's economic status (hard to separate as these two factors are). For example, in families whose income was under $3,000, and where the family head had at least 12 years of school, only 14 percent of the 16- to 17-year-old boys had left school. The figure was nearly twice as great (24 percent) in families with over $7,000 income where the head had less than 8 years of school.

The fact that patterns of education are thus deeply rooted in families' socioeconomic situations and transmitted from one generation to the next makes the task of keeping young people in school both more urgent and more difficult. Work programs and other forms of financial aid (discussed later in the chapter) can reduce the economic pressures which force many youth to quit school. But the history of frustration and failure in school which leads many others to drop out is more difficult to overcome. To do this will require great strengthening of education from preschool on (building on the beginnings already made through Project Head Start and other programs outlined later).

Extension of counseling and other adjustment services will be needed also, particularly in the elementary grades. In the many school systems where counseling is available chiefly or exclusively in the high schools, dropouts often leave school without having received any counseling at all.

Employment Experience of Dropouts and Graduates

Young people who fail to complete at least high school have a marked and lasting economic disadvantage. The unemployment rate in February 1963 was nearly twice as high for male dropouts aged 16 to 21 (28 percent) as for young men who had completed high school (15 percent). The average dropout is, of course, younger than the average graduate, but this is not the chief explanation.

Dropouts have to look for work much longer than graduates before they find their first full-time job. And when they do find one, it is usually at a lower skill level and at less pay. Handicapped by their lack of education and training, dropouts have

TABLE 22. METHOD USED TO OBTAIN FIRST FULL-TIME JOB, BY COLOR, SEX, AND YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED, FEBRUARY 1963

[Percent distribution, persons 16 to 21 years old not enrolled in school]

Color, sex, and years of school completed	All methods	Sent by school	Applied directly	Friends or relatives	Answered ad	Sent by State employment office	Sent by private employment office	Other
ALL PERSONS								
Both sexes, total	100.0	5.7	41.0	35.1	3.9	5.2	3.4	5.8
Less than 4 years of high school	100.0	1.2	37.1	46.8	3.9	3.0	1.8	6.2
4 years of high school	100.0	8.9	43.8	26.8	4.2	6.0	4.4	5.8
1 to 3 years of college	100.0	8.3	42.7	28.5	1.0	11.7	4.9	2.8
Men	100.0	2.9	43.0	41.1	2.0	3.8	1.5	5.8
Less than 4 years of high school	100.0	1.4	40.4	48.5	2.3	2.2	--------	5.2
4 years of high school	100.0	5.0	44.7	34.8	1.9	4.3	2.6	6.6
1 to 3 years of college	100.0	--------	49.7	29.3	----------	11.4	4.8	4.8
Women	100.0	8.0	39.5	30.3	5.3	6.3	4.9	5.7
Less than 4 years of high school	100.0	1.1	33.5	44.9	5.6	3.9	3.7	7.2
4 years of high school	100.0	11.2	43.2	22.1	5.6	6.9	5.5	5.4
1 to 3 years of college	100.0	14.6	37.4	27.9	1.8	11.9	5.0	1.4
WHITE								
Total	100.0	6.3	43.1	32.2	3.9	5.2	3.6	5.7
Less than 4 years of high school	100.0	1.3	40.5	43.3	3.8	3.0	2.0	6.2
4 years of high school	100.0	9.4	45.1	25.1	4.3	5.9	4.5	5.7
1 to 3 years of college	100.0	9.0	42.0	28.0	1.1	11.5	5.3	3.1
NONWHITE								
Total	100.0	1.9	27.2	53.9	3.8	4.9	2.0	6.3
Less than 4 years of high school	100.0	1.0	23.1	61.1	4.4	3.2	1.0	6.3
4 years of high school	100.0	3.6	31.2	44.1	3.2	6.9	4.0	6.9
1 to 3 years of college	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)

[1] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

also received little professional assistance in locating jobs. Very few of those in the February 1963 survey obtained their first full-time job either through their school or through a public or private employment service (table 22). What help they got in locating jobs came chiefly from friends and relatives; the low socioeconomic status of most dropouts' families means that they could seldom provide leads to the more skilled, better paying jobs.

The rate of unemployment among men who failed to finish high school declines somewhat after they have been out of school several years, but it remains much higher than among high school graduates. Furthermore, the difference in earnings between graduates and dropouts becomes striking within a few years after they leave school. In 1960, the men aged 22 to 24 who were high school graduates were already averaging $800 more in yearly earnings than those with an 8th grade education, and $1,400 more than those who had completed only 5 to 7 years of school—even though the average dropout had been out of school much longer.

The proportion of high school graduates in professional, managerial, and craft jobs increases

sharply as time elapses. For dropouts, however, the greatest occupational gains after leaving school are in the proportion employed in semiskilled jobs. Often these jobs are only a little better than the unskilled ones where dropouts often start out and where many remain indefinitely.

PROJECTED LABOR FORCE, EDUCATIONAL, AND OCCUPATIONAL TRENDS

In 1965, close to 4 million young people reached 18, when many start their work careers—1 million more than the year before. An expanding economy provided jobs for these youth, with only a small rise in the number unemployed.

During the next several years, young people reaching 18 will number at least 3½ million yearly—about 700,000 more than in 1964 and the immediately prior years. This prospect underlines the need for continuing efforts to increase young people's employability and broaden the job opportunities open to them.

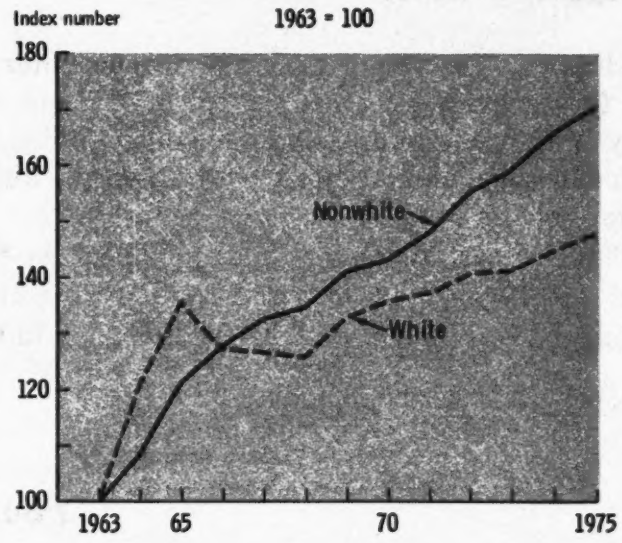
Between 1965 and 1970 the number of nonwhite youth reaching 18 will increase by a fifth over the 430,000 level at the beginning of the period. During this same period, however, the white population reaching 18 will at first actually decrease and will not regain the 1965 figure of about 3.3 million until 1970. After that, the number of 18-year-olds will continue to increase more sharply among nonwhites than whites (by 20 percent and 10 percent, respectively, between 1970 and 1975). (See chart 16.)

Further, the greatest increase in the number of young nonwhite persons will occur among those whose parents are poorly educated. This means that a high proportion of the nonwhite youth entering the labor force are likely to need special help in order to achieve a satisfactory education.

Educational Trends and Labor Force Projections

Recent years have seen great gains in lengthening of the average period of school attendance. Without these gains, the number of jobless youth would be even greater. Between 1950 and 1964, the proportion of 16- to 19-year-olds enrolled in school rose from 50 to 68 percent. At the same time, the proportion of students in the work force declined from 54 to 47 percent.

Chart 16 **Nonwhite population 18 years old—though smaller than the white—will grow at much faster rate in next decade.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

These trends are expected to continue over the next 10 years. Nevertheless, the number of young people out of school and in the labor force is likely to mount because the total number of young men and women in this age group will be so much larger than it was in the prior decade. Altogether, there may be about 4 million 16- to 19-year-olds out of school and working or seeking work in 1975, compared with 3.2 million in 1964.

Though the proportion of young people graduating from high school will probably continue to rise substantially, the increase in the youth population will increase the total number of school dropouts. An estimate by the Bureau of the Census indicates that in 1975 the number of people aged 25 to 29 who have not completed high school will reach 4.8 million, as compared with only 3.3 million in 1965.

This projection assumes a continuation of recent trends. It is not a prediction of things to come but rather carries a challenge to strengthen education and other measures to aid and motivate young people to stay in school. In view of the mounting number of young workers and the rise

in average levels of education, undereducated youth will be competing for jobs in future years with more and better educated young men and women. The handicap imposed by a poor education today is but a pale indication of what it will be in the future.

Occupational Trends

The problems young workers will encounter in the future job market will, of course, depend not only on the general level of employment and their own education and training, but also on the kinds of jobs available.

The sharpest increases in employment in the next 5 to 10 years are expected to occur in white-collar and service occupations (as indicated in the chapter on The Manpower Outlook). Young men entering the labor force may not be greatly helped by these employment gains, since relatively few begin in service or white-collar jobs. And employment in the unskilled and semiskilled occupations where many young men start out is expected to grow much more slowly or, in some cases, even decline. Clearly, the young men qualified for only such jobs can expect difficulty in tomorrow's job market.

Since a high proportion of young women go into white-collar and service occupations, their employment outlook is more encouraging. But here, too, the future belongs to those who can meet higher job requirements and are prepared for the particular occupations with the best prospects of employment growth.

Youth Programs

The urgency, variety, and complexity of youth unemployment problems and their relation to educational deprivation and poverty are apparent from the information just presented. To deal with these problems adequately requires a formidable battery of youth programs tailored to the needs of different groups, such as those which have been developed in the past 4 years.

This section is concerned with the objectives, accomplishments, and limitations of each of the major youth programs and the ways in which these programs are or should be interrelated. The MDTA youth training programs are discussed first, then the various youth programs of the War on Poverty. One of these—the Neighborhood Youth Corps—serves both out-of-school youth and in-school youth in their own communities. The Job Corps serves the most disadvantaged out-of-school youth—those who need a change of environment in order to profit from work experience and training. In addition, the Work-Study Program helps able, impoverished young people to go to college by providing subsidized work opportunities for them.[3] And the Community Action Program mobilizes community resources to meet youth needs.

A discussion of the strengthened youth services of the Federal-State employment service system, which is being called on to cooperate in all these programs, concludes the section.

YOUTH TRAINING UNDER THE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT

Training of jobless youth, begun on a modest scale under the original provisions of the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, has been expanded and strengthened under subsequent amendments to the act.

Young men and women aged 16 or over have, from the beginning, been admitted to the MDTA institutional and on-the-job (OJT) training programs. But experience with these programs soon showed that disadvantaged youth are likely to need much more than skill training to make them employable. Brought up in urban slums or impoverished rural or small-town areas, these young people usually have limited educational and cultural backgrounds and an inadequate knowledge of the meaning of work. They are seldom ready for the more standardized training programs. The special training projects for disadvantaged youth developed under the MDTA therefore fea-

[3] This program is discussed in the section on education later in this chapter.

ture flexible and individualized plans of occupational development. They include not only training but also counseling, job development, placement and followup, and other supporting services.

The development of these special youth projects was aided and stimulated by the 1963 amendments to the MDTA. These amendments lowered the age of eligibility for youth training allowances from 19 to 17. They also permitted a much higher proportion of MDTA funds to be allocated to allowances for youth under 22 years of age; the ceiling was, in fact, raised from only 5 percent of total allowances prior to 1963 to 25 percent of all trainees receiving allowances.

Youth have also benefited from the new provisions which permit allowances to be paid for as long as 104 weeks (double the original limit of 52 weeks). The lengthened training period makes possible basic education (training in language and number skills, for example) for workers needing this as a preliminary to regular occupational training, and also training in more highly skilled and technical occupations for individuals with the necessary foundation of education and aptitudes.

Altogether, about 43,200 young people aged 16 to 21 were enrolled in MDTA institutional programs (including both special youth projects and other institutional training projects) during 1965. These young people represented 42 percent of all MDTA trainees enrolled that year, as compared with 31 percent in 1962–63.

The on-the-job training program has also provided expanding but smaller opportunities for youth. In 1963, when only about 4,000 workers of all ages were enrolled in OJT projects, probably over 1,000 of them were young people. In 1965, the number of youth in OJT projects was in the neighborhood of 4,000, or 39 percent of all OJT trainees.

Thus, while youth training has always been an important part of the MDTA program, the numbers of youth served are still small relative to the total numbers of jobless youth (discussed earlier in this chapter).

Characteristics of Youth Trainees

In accordance with the Manpower Development and Training Act's dual purpose of preparing the jobless and disadvantaged for employment and helping to meet the economy's need for trained workers, the MDTA youth trainees include many from particularly disadvantaged groups and also some who need only skill training to qualify for jobs.

The limited educational background of most of the young trainees is one of the best indexes of their acute disadvantage in the job market. Almost half of all the youth aged 16 to 21 enrolled in institutional projects and one-third of those in OJT projects up to December 31, 1965, were school dropouts. Considerable numbers (13 percent in institutional and 6 percent in OJT programs) had failed to go beyond the 8th grade. On the other hand, a few had not only finished high school but had some post-high school training and were thus relatively well prepared for MDTA training in job skills (table 23).

Nonwhite youth, with their high unemployment rate and widespread educational and training handicaps, have made up a larger proportion of MDTA trainees than of young workers generally. Nonwhites represented one-third of the youth enrolled in institutional projects through

TABLE 23. YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED BY MDTA TRAINEES 16 TO 21 YEARS OLD, AUGUST 1962–DECEMBER 1965

Years of school completed	Number	Percent distribution
INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS		
Total	[1] 104,093	100.0
Less than 8 years	4,586	4.4
8 years	8,556	8.2
9 to 11 years	37,671	36.2
12 years	49,611	47.7
More than 12 years	3,669	3.5
ON-THE-JOB TRAINING PROGRAMS [2]		
Total	[1] 7,723	100.0
Less than 8 years	156	2.0
8 years	309	4.0
9 to 11 years	2,044	26.5
12 years	4,498	58.2
More than 12 years	716	9.3

[1] Excludes youth trainees for whom educational data were not reported.
[2] Data relate to only about one-third of all trainees enrolled in OJT projects (information on education was not available for the remainder).
NOTE: Detail may not add to totals due to rounding.

1965, and nearly one-fifth of the smaller number in OJT projects, as compared with about only 12 percent of all workers aged 16 to 21.

Men have outnumbered women among the youth trainees—especially in OJT projects, which have so far provided training chiefly, though by no means exclusively, in mechanical and other occupations where men predominate. Only one group included nearly as many young women as young men—the nonwhite youth in institutional programs. The enrollment of many nonwhite young women in MDTA training is directly related to their extremely high unemployment rate—the highest rate of joblessness for any major population group.

Young as they are, a substantial number of these trainees carry a heavy burden of family responsibility. Some 17,600, or close to 1 out of every 6, of the youth enrolled in institutional projects through 1965 were eligible for regular allowances, amounting to the average weekly unemployment benefit in their State. All these young people were unemployed heads of households and had had at least 2 years of work experience (the legislative requirements for eligibility for regular training allowances).

Furthermore, as family heads with one or more dependents, over 6,000 young trainees, or 6 percent of all youth enrolled in institutional training, were eligible for augmented allowances. These allowances increase regular allowance payments to family heads by $5 per week for each dependent up to a maximum of six dependents. Thus, jobless youth burdened with family responsibilities, including both men and women mainly in the 20 to 21 year age group, were able to pursue institutional training courses.

Disadvantaged youth eligible for special youth allowances were a considerably larger group, including about one-third of all youth enrolled in institutional training. Special allowances, amounting to $20 per week, are paid only to disadvantaged out-of-school youth in special youth projects.

Altogether, about 56 percent of the youth trainees in institutional projects have been eligible for training allowances of some type. It should be noted that this proportion covers not only 1964 and 1965 but also the earlier period when the proportion of MDTA allowance payments that might go to youth was limited to 5 percent. Since the end of 1963, when the limitation was raised to permit increased training of impoverished young people, the proportion of young trainees qualifying for allowances has certainly become much higher.

The fact remains, however, that large numbers of youth have entered MDTA training courses without allowances. This bears witness to the eagerness of many jobless youth for training and to the willingness of many families to support their young people during training when this is at all feasible financially.[4]

Types of Training

The first MDTA training projects for both youth and adults trained for specific occupations in which the public employment service determined there were unfilled openings for trained workers. This met the statutory requirement that training be in occupations where there is reasonable expectation of employment. Many MDTA projects of this type are still being conducted, chiefly in public vocational schools. (See chart 17.)

The special projects for disadvantaged youth, however, generally use the newer multioccupational approach, providing training for more than one occupation in a single project. They also offer additional services. Both public and private agencies dealing with disadvantaged youth are used to reach as many of these young people as possible. Those who enroll in the project may receive any or all of the following: (1) Counseling and testing; (2) referral to supporting services (e.g., health, social, or psychological) as needed; (3) basic education, prevocational courses, and occupational training in the combination best suited to their individual needs; (4) individualized job placement and job development services; and (5) followup services to assist in job adjustment.

Where they exist, Youth Opportunity Centers (described later in this chapter), can usually provide the needed services or make referrals to other sources. In other areas, services are provided by youth personnel in Employment Service offices.

The nature and adequacy of the services supplied in connection with youth projects, therefore,

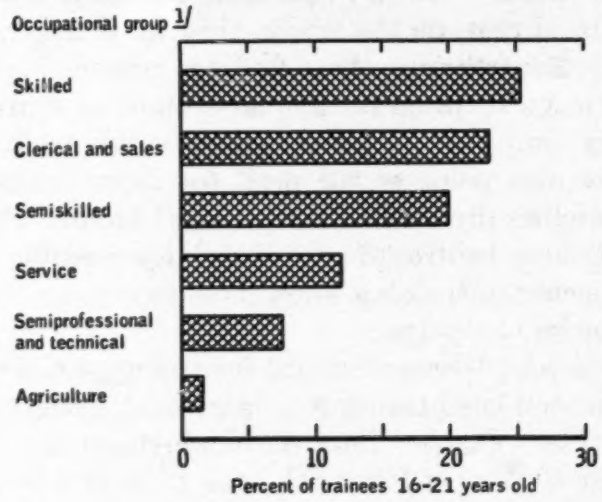
[4] Allowance payments are less important in the OJT program than in institutional training projects, since OJT trainees earn wages for all work entering distribution channels. Of the 7,833 OJT enrollees for whom data were reported, only 1,180, or approximately 15 percent, were eligible for allowances.

vary considerably. Some communities lack adequate free medical and dental services. Yet young people from poor families often have health problems which, if not corrected, may seriously interfere with their training and later employment.

Expansion in the OJT program has been another recent trend under the MDTA. On-the-job training has some unique advantages. It puts the trainee directly on the road to continued employment. It costs the Government little more than one-third as much as institutional training, because the employer bears most of the expenses and pays most of the trainee's compensation. And it usually utilizes up-to-date equipment, often too expensive for vocational education facilities. Continuing expansion in OJT for both youth and adults is therefore planned.

The major emphasis in youth training will continue to be on the special youth projects, however. These offer the best hope of effective job training for the disadvantaged youth whose chances of sharing in the general economic prosperity are poor.

Chart 17 **MDTA courses are training young workers for a wide range of occupations.**



1/ Excludes "other" occupations which account for about 11 percent of total.

Note: Data refer to trainees 16-21 years old enrolled in MDTA institutional courses during period August 1962-August 1965.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

Results of Training

What has happened to the youth enrolled in MDTA training projects? How successful has their training been in preparing them for employment? These questions cannot be answered fully until former youth trainees have had a longer employment history, but several kinds of evaluative data are available with regard to them.

One piece of evidence is the fact that a large majority of the youth in institutional projects have completed their training. The completion rate has been even higher in OJT projects (about 90 percent, according to data furnished before the end of 1965). The likelihood of a permanent job with the OJT employer is a strong factor in this high completion rate.

Since every dropout from training represents a loss of valuable training opportunity, strong efforts are being made to raise further the completion rate, especially in institutional projects. These efforts are being guided by information on the reasons why enrollees quit training, from a sample study of former trainees (including several hundred aged 16 to 21) conducted in early 1965.

This study showed, first of all, that young people with a previous record of failure or very limited accomplishment, educationally and occupationally, are most likely to drop out of training. Thus, 40 percent of the MDTA dropouts in the study had previously dropped out of high school, as against only 27 percent of the youth who completed training projects. Any jobs the dropouts had held before entering MDTA training were mostly of an unskilled nature. In contrast, the majority of the youth who finished training had previously held semiskilled or clerical jobs.

Asked why they quit training, 2 out of 5 trainees said that they did so either to take a job or for financial reasons. Dissatisfaction with some aspect of training was influential also in many cases. This is shown by the following tabulation, which indicates the proportions of dropouts aged 16 to 21 who gave each of the specified reasons:

Reasons for dropouts	*Percent citing specified reason*
Took (or returned to) job	17
Took job for financial reasons	13
Financial reasons—inadequate or no allowance	13
Family problems	14
Personal health	14
Dissatisfaction with some aspect of training	37

Decisions to quit training usually involve a complex of reasons, not merely a single one. The dropouts in the study were often well aware of this and gave more than one reason for terminating their training (which is why the responses cited add up to more than 100 percent). In particular,

many young people who were dissatisfied with training also gave financial or other reasons for quitting.

Dissatisfaction with training was usually limited to a particular aspect (for example, the classroom work). About 80 percent of the respondents reported that, on the whole, they liked the training. Nevertheless, these findings present a clear challenge to program administrators to continuously improve training content and methods. They also point to the need for more intensive counseling directed at the personal factors which contribute to dropping out, and for possible adjustments in training allowances to ease trainees' financial hardships.

The job placement record for young people who have completed training is, in general, gratifying. As of mid-October 1965, the employment rate was about 80 percent for youth aged 16 to 21 who had completed institutional training projects. It was even higher—over 85 percent—for "graduates" of OJT programs, most of whom have stayed on with the same employer who provided the training.

Additional insights into the posttraining employment experience of youth are provided by an evaluation study conducted late in 1964. This study included slightly over 200 youth who had completed training during the preceding year.

The great majority of these young MDTA graduates had found jobs. Their initial placement rate was 87 percent. But a significant number did not continue to hold these jobs, either because they were dissatisfied or because they could not adjust to the work situation. By the time of the survey, their employment rate was down to 69 percent—representing a significantly higher rate of job loss than older MDTA graduates experienced.

Even so, training effected a sizable improvement in the employment situation of these young people. Almost one-third of them had had no steady full-time work between September 1960 and the start of their MDTA training. This was nearly three times the proportion unemployed from the time of completing training until the time of interview.

Experimental and Demonstration Projects

The MDTA experimental and demonstration (E&D) program is the spearhead of innovation in training of disadvantaged youth and adults who cannot be reached, motivated, or prepared for jobs by the regular training programs. E&D projects, conducted by private or public agencies on contract with the Department of Labor, have pioneered in developing techniques now widely used in the special youth programs and also in training of adults.

The E&D projects concerned with youth have experimented with at least five different training approaches. One of these is the *sheltered workshop*, where trainees help to produce marketable goods. Under constant supervision and as nearly realistic industrial conditions as possible, they are introduced to such basic job requirements as regular attendance, cooperation with fellow workers, and acceptance of supervision. A standard work pace is set to indicate the need for sustained work and the relation of work performance to pay. However, poor performance does not trigger disciplinary action.

Skill centers have been created by several E&D youth projects. These centers create as realistic a work setting as possible, but the goods and services produced by the trainees are not marketed.

In one skill center, the majority of enrollees were members of minority groups who had dropped out of school and had criminal records. Of 52 young people trained in the repair of electrical appliances, 17 were placed in private employment and 13 in OJT projects. However, 20 either dropped out of training or were terminated, and 2 were awaiting placement. In view of the enrollees' previous record, these results were regarded as encouraging. The staff of the center believe, however, that if the allowances paid trainees were increased as a reward for excellent trainee performance, this would help to improve their motivation.

Vestibule training is a third E&D approach designed to prepare youth for specific entry jobs. In one project sponsored by a city government, trainees were prepared for clerical, hospital, and other jobs, through a combination of vestibule training in city government agencies and classroom education. Of the 327 youth who entered the program, most of whom were unemployed high school graduates, 197 were placed in training-related jobs and 83 in other kinds of jobs. Only 36 were terminated, and 11 were awaiting placement at the time of the report.

On-the-job training by a private employer, provided for in a number of projects, gives enrollees the advantage of learning in an actual work situation, at wages substantially higher than the MDTA youth allowance. The project sponsors (with reimbursement from MDTA funds) furnish counseling and other services and handle all arrangements with the employer providing the on-the-job training.

Only scattered evidence as to the outcome of such projects is available as yet. As would be expected, the placement rate for the particularly underprivileged youth in these projects is by no means as high as for graduates of the regular OJT projects (reported on in the preceding section). But a good many encouraging examples can be cited, for example, of school dropouts who found jobs after completing an E&D on-the-job training project.

A fifth approach has been *pre-apprenticeship training*, aimed at upgrading the knowledge and skill of school dropouts to meet the standards required for apprenticeship. Enrollees have been given a combination of OJT and supplementary classroom instruction, carefully adjusted to the requirements of the particular trade involved and the trainee's academic deficiencies. The results, though not uniformly favorable, demonstrate that school dropouts who would never otherwise have had an opportunity for apprenticeship may, by successfully completing a year of coupled OJT and classroom instruction, gain admittance to formal apprenticeships in the construction and metal-working trades.

A systematic effort to study and report on the results and implications of these and other types of E&D projects is in progress in the Department of Labor. Following are some conclusions already foreshadowed:

1. Open-end training programs which graduate individual trainees when they reach a certain achievement level are generally preferable to those of fixed duration. Since learning rates vary from individual to individual, programs of fixed length may be too short to impart the skills required to get and hold a job (or, more rarely, unnecessarily long).

2. Programs which offer training in only one or a few occupations are likely to have high dropout rates. And the trainees who graduate from such programs often take jobs unrelated to their training. This conclusion, arrived at in some of the earliest E&D projects, spurred the development of multioccupational and OJT programs.

3. In choosing which occupations to train for, project planners should not rely wholly on surveys made to determine reasonable expectation of employment. Between the planning of a training program and the placement of graduates, the local job market situation can shift rapidly. Further experimentation seems advisable to improve the techniques used to select demand occupations for training programs. Furthermore, many E&D project operators believe that general skills useful in a variety of occupations should be emphasized in training curricula.

4. The skill training and other services provided in programs for disadvantaged young people should, as far as possible, be directed by the staff of a single agency. This is attested to by most E&D experience. Tortuous referral processes must be avoided in efforts to help these youth.

NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS

The Neighborhood Youth Corps provides work experience for disadvantaged youth from low-income families which will enable them to:

—Stay in school.

—Return to school if they have already dropped out.

—Obtain work experience and develop good work habits if they are out of school and out of work.

Operated by State and local governments and private nonprofit agencies on contract with the Federal Government, the projects employ youth aged 16 to 21 in a wide variety of jobs where they will help to meet unmet public needs and will not displace present workers.

For boys and girls who are still in school but might otherwise drop out, the NYC's in-school program aims to provide financial assistance and motivation to continue their education. If these enrollees are full-time students, they are limited to 15 hours of work per week (if part-time students, to 20 hours), to avoid interference with schooling. They are usually paid at the regular

project rate of $1.25 per hour. In-school projects can enroll young people for the entire school year and for the summer months as well.

A number of out-of-school projects have also been organized to offer work training to young people who have left school. Enrollees in these projects may work up to 32 hours a week and thus earn up to $40 weekly. In addition, they may receive remedial education and instruction in basic skills. The counseling and medical assistance provided as supporting services in many projects are also very important for many of these out-of-school youth. Enrollment is currently limited to 26 weeks; if the enrollee participates in an after-work education program at least 6 hours a week, the period can be extended.

The out-of-school projects stress work experience aimed at developing the attitudes and behavior required for regular employment. The enrollees' NYC experience is expected to be a first step—a bridge that will enable them to return to school, undertake skill training, or hold regular jobs.

Summer projects designed for young people who would normally be attending school are also operated. In the summer of 1965, when the program had been in existence only a few months, heavy emphasis was placed on developing special 12-week projects, in order to provide work opportunities for as many of the young people seeking jobs as possible.

Altogether, 1,446 projects providing 513,000 jobs for enrollees were approved during calendar year 1965. Of these jobs, 278,000 were made available from funds appropriated in fiscal year 1965. The total number of jobs for youth from fiscal 1966 appropriations will be about 356,000. About 100,000 are for young people still in school and 60,000 for those who have left school. Summer projects operating in the summer of 1966 will provide jobs for an additional 165,000 youngsters who normally attend school.

Nature of Projects and Work Done

To get approval for a project, sponsors survey the needs for services in their communities and work out opportunities to employ NYC enrollees. The NYC encourages the inclusion of supportive services such as remedial education and health examinations as an integral part of the project design. When such services cannot be provided through other community resources, the NYC will consider financing them directly.

The jobs performed in an NYC project may be in any or all of five major fields—health, education, welfare, recreation, and conservation—depending on the work opportunities the sponsoring agency is able to develop. The possible range of jobs is illustrated by a single city government project, which lists the following: School ground beautification aides, landscaping aides, janitor aides, library aides, clerical aides, teacher aides, street beautification and street repair aides, conservation workers, cafeteria aides, recreation aides, warehouse aides, television and audiovisual aides, and beautification aides at the city hall, water plant, fire department building, parks, and housing projects.

The experience and training gained in these jobs depend much more on the supervision received than on the nature of the job itself. In a project which allows the necessary time, a good supervisor can arrange to mesh the type of work and the degree of competence and initiative required with the enrollee's abilities. The adequacy of the supervision provided varies, of course, from project to project. The NYC aims and endeavors, however, to challenge the project leadership with the importance of this task and to build strong supervisory methods and controls.

The Enrollees and Their Selection

All enrollees are, by definition, poor. Only youth who come from poor families (as defined by firm income standards)[5] may be enrolled. Among these youth, priority is given to those with poor academic achievement, poor attitudes toward work, physical or mental handicaps, or other disadvantages. Delinquents and youth with prison records are also eligible for enrollment. Since NYC's resources are unlikely ever to be large enough to permit enrollment of all poor youth, they must concentrate on those least likely to succeed without substantial help.

[5] The standards used take account of total family income, family size, and certain other factors. For a description of these standards, see footnote 13, p. 53.

Project sponsors assume primary responsibility for recruiting and selecting NYC enrollees. They are encouraged, however, to use the services of the State Employment Services and their newly created Youth Opportunity Centers in recruiting out-of-school enrollees. Schools sponsoring projects for in-school youth usually do their own recruitment and selection.

Following are some key facts about the enrollees selected:

—Enrollees tend to be at the lower end of the 16 to 21 year age range, where unemployment rates are highest (as indicated earlier in this chapter). In-school enrollees in the spring of 1965 had a median age of 17 and out-of-school enrollees a median age of 18. Many more nonwhite than white young people have entered the NYC at age 19 or above.

—The in-school projects serve mainly senior high school students. Over 70 percent of the enrollees in these projects were in the 11th and 12th grades. A very few were in junior high school.

—The educational level of the out-of-school group is much lower. Nearly half of these enrollees (46 percent) dropped out of school after completing only the 9th grade, and 11 percent had not completed the 8th grade.

—The proportion of nonwhites is much larger among the enrollees than among the youth population generally. A study of the first 50,000 enrollees showed that 37 percent of the youth in in-school and 51 percent of those in out-of-school projects were nonwhite.

—Though young men are in the majority, both the in-school and out-of-school groups include large numbers of young women. As in the MDTA program, the proportion of young women is much higher among the nonwhite than the white enrollees.

—The NYC has provided the first job experience in their lives (except for an occasional car-washing or similar job) for over half of the out-of-school enrollees and for over three-fourths of the in-school group.

Results of the Program

The results of the NYC program can be judged from several different points of view. One is its effect in helping to hold down the unemployment rate for young people.

The summer normally brings an increase in the number of jobs available, but in 1965 the summer increase in employment of teenagers exceeded the 1964 seasonal rise by more than half a million. The NYC employed almost 300,000 young people in July 1965. It was thus a major source of summer jobs for the mounting teenage work force and a significant factor in preventing a rise in their unemployment rate (as discussed in the Review of Current Developments earlier in this report).

NYC jobs are not permanent, however, and the time comes when the enrollee is no longer in the project. The NYC believes that the real measure of its success is the development of the enrollee in the project and what happens to him after he leaves.

From the beginning, project sponsors have been urged to work closely with local leaders in education, business, and organized labor to develop job opportunities for NYC "graduates." Businessmen have appeared at assemblies of NYC enrollees to give them advice on how to get and hold jobs. In areas where needed but previously nonexistent services have been well performed by NYC enrollees, these services have sometimes been continued with financing from other sources; thus, in effect, some regular jobs have been generated by NYC projects.

For those enrolled in school, of course, a major measure of success is how many stay in school until graduation. In one Detroit school, for example, the dropout rate for NYC enrollees was only 4.2 percent, compared with 9.7 percent for all students. This is the more impressive because the students selected for the NYC were, in general, those most likely to leave school.

The experience of the out-of-school youth after leaving the Corps is probably a more rigorous test than what happens to the in-school group. Older and with less education than the enrollees who are still in school, these young people are likely to have suffered from defeats in job-seeking efforts and to have developed deep-rooted feelings of discouragement and frustration.

A study of the progress of young people during their entire enrollment period in 30 projects is

now underway. This study and others will point out the results achieved, the major factors in successes and failures, and what shifts in direction or changes in emphasis may be indicated.

Continued emphasis on good supervision is needed, along with more planning time and emphasis on developing good work-experience arrangements. These changes are recognized as important; the feasibility of effecting them would be increased by providing the time and money for them in the contracts, at the outset. If ways can also be found to build into the projects a plan for achieving growth in the work experiences offered enrollees, this would be desirable. For some young people, the entire project period might well be devoted to acquiring basic work attitudes and habits. For others, the challenge of a more demanding assignment may motivate the enrollee to improved performance more effectively than weeks of routine work.

JOB CORPS

The Job Corps is a residential training program for youth out of school and out of work, whose lives have been so underprivileged that they have little chance of becoming productive citizens without a change of surroundings.

The maximum length of enrollment is 2 years, but most courses are designed for completion in a shorter period. Corpsmen may leave at any time; enrollment is wholly voluntary.

Besides their living expenses, enrollees receive a modest allowance [6]—considerably less per month than NYC enrollees can earn in out-of-school projects.

The first center began operations in early 1965. By mid-January 1966, the Job Corps had 73 conservation centers, with over 8,000 enrollees; 8 urban centers for men, with another 8,000 enrollees; and 6 urban centers for women, with 1,500 enrollees. Plans call for an increase in the total enrollment in all centers to 30,000 by the end of fiscal year 1966 and to 45,000 by the end of fiscal 1967.

[6] For most corpsmen, the allowance is $30 a month. Some may receive $10 to $20 additionally in recognition of special achievement or leadership roles. In addition, enrollees are paid terminal allowances of $50 for each month they have spent in the Corps. An enrollee may allot up to $25 per month of his terminal allowance to a qualified dependent, and if he does so, the Job Corps will match this allotment.

Nature of the Program

At the outset, the Job Corps recognized that no hard-and-fast rules could be set for the program and management of the centers. The urban centers are largely a new development, and the conservation centers are very different from the old Civilian Conservation Corps, their closest historical relative. Under these circumstances, the centers operate with considerable leeway for experimentation. Nevertheless, their programs have a common core.

The basic education program in all centers starts on the assumption that all corpsmen will need additional work in reading and mathematics. The goal of the reading program is to have as many trainees as possible read at least at the seventh or eighth grade level. Those who read fairly well to start with are enabled to reach substantially higher reading levels.

The mathematics needs of corpsmen are similarly varied. Trainees can enter the program with no more than the ability to count to 10. After successful completion of the basic mathematics training, they are equipped with the mathematical skills demanded by many present-day jobs.

Both the mathematics and reading programs make use of specially developed, innovative materials and techniques. These appear to be very successful in helping individuals with limited and differing amounts of education to advance rapidly and may have broad applicability.

The world-of-work curriculum, another part of the basic program, is aimed at developing attitudes toward work which corpsmen will need to get and hold jobs and at broadening their knowledge of the world of work. Many have little or no understanding of what types of jobs are available, what will be required of them on the job, or how to apply for a job.

Other essential elements of the center programs are physical training, health education, motor vehicle operation, training in use of hand tools and general employability skills, recreation of many types, and, above all, counseling. All staff members are expected to work at motivating the enrollees. But guidance counselors professionally trained for this function are responsible for seeing that the corpsmen make progress toward a better work and life adjustment. Centers differ in the nature and depth of the counseling they provide.

All provide individual counseling, and in some there are regular group counseling sessions where corpsmen can gain insights and help from each other.

In the conservation centers, which are Government-operated and located on public lands, the young men spend about half their time in remedial reading and mathematics and the other types of activities just described, and the other half in needed conservation work. They have, for example, built trails and shelters, dug ditches, planted seedlings, pruned forests, and fought forest fires.

An important difference between conservation and urban centers is that urban centers give specific job skill training, whereas in conservation centers vocational training is limited. The urban centers also differ widely among themselves, under what Job Corps officials call the "principle of pluralism." The sponsors are allowed to develop their own operating principles, and establish their own timetables and criteria for measurement of success. They also decide on the nature of the job training to be given. (This and other aspects of their plans are subject to the approval of the Job Corps.)

In all cases the sponsors have drawn upon the Department of Labor's program of occupational outlook research, to ensure that the skills being trained for are in demand and that job openings are likely to be available for the enrollees as they leave the program.

One of the men's centers, for example, gives training in automobile parts service and many types of repair work. Another teaches office work, office equipment maintenance, selling, cooking, metal-working, and health services. In the women's centers, occupational training is offered in clerical, sales, household service, some types of factory work, and other jobs employing many women. The girls are also given training in homemaking skills.

A young man who demonstrates interest in and ability to pursue a particular skill for which training is not offered at his center may be transferred to another offering such training. And if an enrollee in an urban center appears to need work experience before he can profit from skill training, he may be transferred to a conservation center.

The Enrollees and Their Selection

Immediately after it was set up in November 1964, the Job Corps launched an information campaign to reach the young men and women it was designed to serve. The response was enormous. More than 280,000 youth sent in "opportunity cards," signifying interest and showing that they recognized their need for outside help.

Actual recruitment and screening of enrollees were necessarily individual matters. Public employment offices throughout the country have done over 90 percent of the screening for the men's centers. In addition, private nonprofit and other public agencies have handled some of it. Screening of young women has been done, under contract with the Corps, by Women in Community Service, a national confederation of women's groups representing all major faiths. In addition to being interviewed, applicants have been given intelligence and educational achievement tests and medical examinations.

The Job Corps has, of course, specified the general criteria to be followed in selecting enrollees. Applicants must be young (16 to 21 years), poor, uneducated, and jobless. Other criteria include an unsatisfactory family situation, urgent need for a new environment, lack of motivation, and other special handicapping factors. In addition, the Job Corps has specified that it cannot, at least in this stage of the program, accept applicants who have committed a crime of violence or are drug addicts.

During the past year, the interviewing, testing, and referral of young men and women to Job Corps centers has had to be done very quickly. The young people who had signified their interest were of course eager for prompt assignment; the communities from which they came were often anxious that they receive immediate help, which had been almost entirely lacking for this group; and as the centers opened, the Corps sought to get started as rapidly as possible in meeting the urgent problems of the most disadvantaged youth.

In practice, the major common characteristic of the young men and women selected for the Job Corps appears to be that they need and want help and cannot get this in their home communities.

More specifically, the corpsmen have an average age of 17½ years, about the same as enrollees in the NYC. Their educational level is somewhat below that of NYC out-of-school enrollees. Of

the corpsmen enrolled in December 1965, 43 percent had dropped out before completing the ninth grade, and 19 percent had failed to complete even the eighth grade. Furthermore, most of them had been out of school a long time—25 percent for more than 2 years and 70 percent for more than 6 months.

More than half the enrollees had lived in substandard, overcrowded housing, and about the same proportion had a deficient and disruptive home environment. About 37 percent came from families on public assistance, and 34 percent from a home where a parent was seriously ill. In 55 percent of the families, the primary wage earner was unemployed. More than one-fourth of the corpsmen had tried to enter the Armed Forces and been found disqualified.

Initial Results and Problems Encountered

In its first year of operation, the Job Corps has shown that real advances can be made in educating and training greatly disadvantaged, frustrated, and embittered young people and in helping them develop the attitudes and motivation needed to become useful citizens. The program has not been operating long enough to evaluate the subsequent employment experience of graduates, which will be its crucial test, but many instances of hopeful progress in the development of individuals are reported.

Despite their previous record of failure, between two-thirds and three-fourths of the enrollees have stayed with the Corps. This record is a real measure of success. About half of those who have left quit during the first month; this may indicate either that their commitment to the Corps was limited, or perhaps that they relapsed into the pattern of failure which had pursued them.

Full evaluation of Job Corps results, like those of the NYC program, will not be possible for a long time to come. In the meantime, the development of interim goals and criteria for performance should aid the Corps in judging the operations of individual centers and also give the public a clearer understanding of the nature of the enrollee group and the handicaps they must overcome.

The referral of applicants to the Job Corps and other programs is another area in which progress should be possible in the year ahead, when there should be less pressure to make these referrals quickly. It is important to distinguish as clearly as possible between the types of candidates who can best be served by the different programs and to make every effort to steer individuals to the place where their needs can be met most adequately and at low cost.

The nationwide scarcity of well-trained staff, particularly of those equipped to deal with disadvantaged young people, makes staff recruitment and development a vitally important aspect of Job Corps operations. Shortages of remedial teachers, group workers, guidance and counseling personnel, and other specialized workers are acute and long standing. Hence the closest cooperation is needed with educational institutions and all interested individuals.

The principle of pluralism—of great importance because of the innovation and experimentation it makes possible—has led to some difficulties. Wide differences in program and methods of operation among the centers have tended to invite comparisons, sometimes unduly sharp. As experience accumulates, however, this experimentation should prove its value. Given enough experience to identify the most successful approaches, these may reasonably be expected to spread to other parts of the program.

COMMUNITY ACTION PROGRAM

The Community Action Program (CAP) is another powerful weapon in aid to disadvantaged youth. Much of the theory and experience underlying this program was developed in connection with earlier community youth programs, a number of which have been incorporated in the CAP. In addition, while most CAP projects are not concerned primarily with youth, they all include youth as part of the community served.

A few communities recognized a decade ago that they were facing an unprecedented growth in their young population, that the family and community structure needed to accommodate this growth was shaky and overloaded, and that juvenile delinquency was increasing. Since local financial resources could not be stretched to provide the needed remedial programs, Federal financial assistance was made available in the early 1960's, along with substantial support from private foundations.

Assistance took the form of grants for demonstration and research projects aimed at finding effective means of attacking the associated problems of poverty, unemployment, lack of education, family disorganization, slum conditions, and delinquency.

Federal assistance came first through the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, then through the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, the Department of Labor, the Area Redevelopment Administration, the Community Renewal Program of the Urban Renewal Administration, and the program of Rural Agricultural Development. Private agencies such as the Ford Foundation have made large grants, and State and municipal governments have provided supplementary funds. The President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency provided funds for planning demonstration projects in 16 of the Nation's major cities, and youth programs were actually undertaken in a number of cities. The thrust of the programs, whatever their financing, has been to strengthen community resources for service to youth, to improve staffing and coordination within and among youth-serving agencies, and to offer a more effective network of related services.

These projects, relatively small and limited geographically, had an impact far beyond the numbers of youth served. They drew national attention to the inadequacy of existing services—their often fragmentary nature, their frequent failure to reach those most in need of help, and, typically, their planning and implementation by professionals and community leaders without real participation by the poor themselves.

The Community Action Program (described in the preceding chapter) builds on the findings and experience gained through these earlier programs. In one of the larger programs, for example, financing is provided for a student achievement center in the public schools, extended day and Saturday school for those who cannot come during regular school hours, preschool work for very young children, group guidance work, and an adult program. A smaller program, this one on an Indian reservation, provides for a youth enrichment program, an adult enrichment program, and establishment of a nursery school and kindergarten.

The CAP projects also serve as a coordinating center for NYC and other youth programs. The purpose is to weld all resources available in the community into a concerted attack on the problems of poverty affecting both youth and adults.

YOUTH SERVICES OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

The rapid growth in numbers of youth entering the work force and the development of special training and work-experience programs for them have been paralleled by increases in the youth services of the Federal-State employment service system. New job applications from young people under 22 totaled almost 4.3 million in 1965, up 15 percent from the previous year. Nearly 1.8 million placements of youth were made in nonagricultural jobs, a 14.7 percent increase, and 781,000 were given counseling service, a rise of 11.2 percent. In addition, between January and November 1965, over a million placements of young people were made in agricultural employment.

The need to strengthen and redeploy Employment Service resources grew in urgency with increasing demands on local offices to cooperate in the new programs for youth. As the Congress made additional funds available, Youth Opportunity Centers were set up in major metropolitan centers, and youth-service units were established in local offices in other areas. Specialized youth staff has been expanded and given intensive training, and new techniques and approaches are being developed for reaching and serving disadvantaged youth.

Youth Opportunity Centers and Youth Services of Local Offices

Youth Opportunity Centers embody a new concept of employment service to youth. As separate youth employment offices, they give young jobseekers a clearly designated source of services tailored to their individual needs, at a location convenient to them. By the end of 1965, 120 YOC's had been opened in large metropolitan areas in 50 States. By the end of fiscal year 1966, 200 YOC's are expected to be operating in 139 areas which contain half the country's youth.

Though the YOC's provide services for all young people seeking jobs, outreach to the disadvantaged is an important element in their programs. Underprivileged youth are often too suspicious of authority or too discouraged and apathetic to come to the center on their own initiative. So specially trained youth advisers and community workers who are indigenous to the slum areas go out into these areas to find the young people who need help, explain the program in their own language, and clear away their suspicions and hostility.

The YOC's basic aim, once young people have been reached, is to increase their employability through counseling and help them get jobs. Young people are also referred to vocational training or the new work-training programs and to medical and other services when needed.

The centers work closely with other community agencies and government programs. Community resources called upon may range from health and education facilities to social and family welfare agencies, law enforcement and parole authorities, and legal aid associations. When needed, psychiatrists, social workers, and other specialists are employed as consultants.

Over 300,000 new young applicants were served by YOC's from February through October 1965. Counseling service was given to 88,000, and 73,000 were placed in jobs. In addition, close to 30,000 youth were referred to Neighborhood Youth Corps projects, over 3,000 to the Job Corps, and over 7,000 to MDTA training. The youth units in other local Employment Service offices are also making increased efforts to develop young people's employability and help them find jobs.

Both the YOC's and other local offices are carrying forward the cooperative program with the schools which the Employment Service has developed over the years. Designed to help seniors make the transition from school to jobs, this program now covers about half the Nation's high schools. In 1965, more than 630,000 seniors who planned to go to work after graduation were registered by the Employment Service and given information on occupations and jobs, as well as placement services. Nearly 350,000 received counseling and testing. Efforts to extend the program further are particularly emphasizing rural areas and predominantly Negro high schools.

A good many schools refer potential dropouts to Employment Service offices for employment counseling and placement in part-time jobs to help them stay in school. However, young people often leave school on reaching legal age with little or no advance notice of their intention to do this. Many schools forward their names and addresses to the Employment Service for followup. Volunteers and community workers then visit the dropouts in their homes and try to persuade them to continue their schooling or to enroll for training.

Cooperation in MDTA and War on Poverty Programs

Training and work-experience programs for youth developed under the Manpower Development and Training Act and the Economic Opportunity Act have greatly broadened the area in which the Employment Service can help to meet young workers' varying needs.

Besides conducting surveys helping to determine the occupations for which workers should be trained under the MDTA, the Employment Service deals with vocational education authorities on arrangements for training courses. Employment Service personnel also recruit and select youth for training and provide counseling as needed during the training period. They are responsible for placing MDTA graduates in employment and for followup services to help them adjust to their new jobs. The Employment Service also provides many of these same kinds of services (except arrangements for training courses) for NYC and Job Corps enrollees, as indicated in the preceding discussion of these programs.

Strenuous efforts have been made also to coordinate Employment Service activities with the Community Action Program, though not yet with full success in all cases. The multiplicity of organizations involved in a CAP and lack of full understanding of the functions of each have sometimes resulted in overlapping and duplication of effort. The degree of flexibility essential in meshing Employment Service operations with Community Action projects, so as to furnish the needed manpower services and stimulate community action to provide more adequate health and other supporting services, has not always existed. As each organization gains experience and understanding of the functions and resources of the others with which it works, gaps in service can be filled and all programs will gain in effectiveness.

Program for Selective Service Rejectees

A special program was set up in the Employment Service in 1964 to meet the needs of young men who fail the educational tests given to Selective Service registrants and are therefore unable to enter the Armed Services. It is paralleled by a rehabilitation program for those rejected for physical reasons, which is carried out by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Early experience showed that interviews were much more effective than letters in getting rejectees to come to public employment offices for help. Employment Service personnel were therefore stationed during 1965 at all 73 Armed Forces Examining Stations (AFES) in the United States.

Young men rejected because of educational deficiencies are interviewed in groups immediately after their rejection. Those who say they want help from the Employment Service are then interviewed individually and referred to their local Employment Service office or Youth Opportunity Center. Those who do not request help but whose records indicate that they need it are also contacted by their local office and offered job-finding assistance or other manpower services.

Altogether, about 468,000 young men who were rejected by the Armed Forces on educational grounds from mid-February 1964 through November 1965 were contacted. The Employment Service interviewed 25 percent of these rejectees and found that, of those interviewed, 55 percent were unemployed and 8 percent underemployed. Almost 2 out of every 5 had no more than an 8th grade education and often less.

Two out of five (about 45,000) of those interviewed received some counseling and 33,000 were referred to jobs, with 17,000 job placements resulting. However, less than 3 percent were enrolled in training under the MDTA or Area Redevelopment Act, and only 5 percent were referred to other agencies, including the Job Corps, the Neighborhood Youth Corps, and rehabilitation and educational agencies. Suitable training opportunities are not uniformly available in the smaller towns and rural areas in which many rejectees live.

Since the assignment of Employment Service personnel to the AFES, this record in reaching and aiding rejectees has been considerably improved. The proportion interviewed in November 1965 was over 40 percent of those rejected for educational deficiencies.

Youth Opportunity Campaign

The Youth Opportunity Campaign launched by the President for the summer of 1965 stimulated nationwide cooperation in providing more summer jobs for young people. Nearly a million letters were mailed to employers, State governors, mayors, and school officials to solicit their cooperation in the campaign. Federal agencies were directed to find openings for one extra trainee for each 100 employees and the Neighborhood Youth Corps was authorized to take on an additional 25,000 boys and girls.

Youthful jobseekers were urged through all news media to register with the Employment Service, and employers were urged to place orders. Almost 80,000 employers responded directly to local offices and over 2 million youths contacted local offices for work.[7]

In a followup survey on the impact of the campaign, the Employment Service contacted 75,000 employers, including those who had hired young people through public employment offices and others who had responded directly to the Vice President's special request. These 75,000 employers had hired more than a half million young people, at least 1 in 5 as additional workers in response to the campaign. In general, employers stated that those hired had proved to be excellent workers.

The young people involved also expressed enthusiasm about the President's campaign. Some will now be able to finance higher education, others can return to high school, and others were helped to decide on a vocation as a result of their work experience.

Federal agencies made a sizable contribution to the campaign as employers. Sixty-one agencies employed 37,500 young people during the campaign's 4 months. Of this number, 58 percent were high school students, 33 percent were college students, and 9 percent were not in school. Young men outnumbered young women by about 3 to 2.

[7] The count of youths seeking jobs includes those who returned to the local office a second and third time during the campaign to seek assistance in finding jobs. Likewise, the number of employer responses includes the count of those employers who had contacted the local office more than once during the campaign.

Reports from the employing agencies, summarizing their reactions to the program, were compiled by the U.S. Civil Service Commission. Though many of the young people had had no prior job experience, supervisors were generally well satisfied with the quality of their work. Most of them thought the program should be continued.

Strengthening of Staff

In strengthening services to young people the Employment Service has found the scarcity of well-qualified counselors and other staff a major impeding factor. This is a continuing problem despite recent strenuous efforts to recruit and train staff.

The number of people in local Employment Service offices who spend some or all of their time in counseling increased by about 50 percent between 1964 and 1965 (from about 2,900 to more than 4,400). Much of this increase has been in the new Youth Opportunity Centers, where about half of the staff are counselors.

Staff employed in the ES local offices who were transferred to Youth Opportunity Centers have been given out-service training to prepare them for work with disadvantaged youth. This training, typically a 3-week institute at a university, was given to over 1,000 staff members in fiscal year 1965. Similar training is planned for an estimated 300 additional people to be transferred to YOC's in fiscal 1966.

The CAUSE projects (Counselor-Advisor University Summer Education) have been the major source of new counseling personnel trained specifically for work with disadvantaged young people. CAUSE I, conducted in 1964, was an innovation in counseling training which substantially increased the number and quality of Employment Service counseling personnel. Of the 1,724 trainees satisfactorily completing CAUSE I, 70 percent were hired by the Employment Service; of the remainder, 80 percent found work in related occupations.

By taking advantage of available university facilities during the summer months, CAUSE I provided trained staff in time for the opening of the first Youth Opportunity Centers in early 1965. This use of university facilities during the summer months was repeated in CAUSE II, which trained another 1,600 people for work with disadvantaged youth in the summer of 1965.

The great majority of persons trained (87 percent) were counselor trainees. A few (11 percent) were counselors with master's degrees. Another small group (6 percent) were community workers, chosen primarily for their demonstrated skill and leadership ability in working with poor people, especially youth.

Together, the two CAUSE projects helped to fill a serious personnel gap. The long-run solution to counselor shortages clearly lies, however, in the further expansion of regular university training programs, provisions for year-round training of counseling personnel, and higher salaries and greater opportunities for professional progress.

As a move in this direction, the USES in September 1965 issued new educational standards for four levels of counseling personnel: Counselor trainee, counselor, master counselor, and supervising counselor. The standards for the professional counselor class call for a master's degree or 30 graduate hours of counseling-related courses (until July 1968, a year of counseling experience plus 15 hours of graduate work counseling may be substituted). The States were asked to adopt these standards as quickly as possible. It is hoped that adoption of these standards will make it easier to recruit young people as trainees and also lead to progressively improved opportunities for salary and professional advancement.

Qualified counseling personnel are in demand, however, by many agencies, public and private, and, in general, Employment Service salaries are not competitive. Some progress is being made in raising salary standards, but they need to rise further in order to attract and retain qualified staff for youth services and other programs.

The Central Role of Education

The youth programs described in the preceding section are intended to improve the ability of disadvantaged young people to overcome handicaps incurred early in life, and to compete effectively in the labor force. Many of these youth have already left school without acquiring the knowledge and skills which adult life demands of them. Others need help if they are to stay in school.

Remedies provided at so late a period in an individual's education are inevitably less effective and more expensive than prevention. The Congress has, therefore, taken unprecedented steps to deal with inadequate education from preschool years upward.

The first session of the 89th Congress saw the passage of no less than two dozen education measures—the culmination of an unprecedented legislative commitment to the goal of educational opportunity for all Americans. Two of the new educational measures enacted in 1965 provide massive financial support to schools and colleges—the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and the Higher Education Act. In addition, notable progress has been made in implementing the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and recent amendments to the National Defense Education Act.

These measures are of course designed to strengthen education at all levels and for all groups. They also provide specific aid for disadvantaged youth and offer hope of a long-run solution to their problems.

ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT

This law represents the Federal Government's largest commitment thus far to improve elementary and secondary education, though it leaves direction and control of the expenditures to the State and local governments. The act states five purposes: (1) To strengthen elementary and secondary school programs for educationally deprived children in low-income areas; (2) to provide school library resources, textbooks, and other instructional materials; (3) to furnish support for supplementary educational centers and services; (4) to expand educational research and training; and (5) to strengthen State departments of education.

Title I authorizes grants to local school districts to broaden and strengthen programs for educationally disadvantaged children in both public and nonpublic schools. The possible uses of the funds are diverse, and the local districts are encouraged to use creativity and innovation to meet the educational needs of their disadvantaged youth.

Over a billion dollars is authorized for grants under this title. A formula based on family income determines which districts may apply for grants. The focus of the program, however, is on helping children whose educational achievement is below the norm, including those with physical, mental, or emotional handicaps.

Title II authorizes allotments for acquisition of a wide variety of all kinds of educational materials for both public and nonpublic schools, so long as the funds are used to supplement, not replace, present expenditures for this purpose. About $100 million is authorized under this title.

Title III provides for supplementary educational centers and services. The program, known as PACE—Projects to Advance Creativity in Education—is designed to help local school districts provide better educational programs and to encourage innovation and experimentation. A wide variety of services can be financed from the $75 million in grants authorized under this title: Guidance and counseling; remedial instruction; school health services; preschool training for culturally deprived children; special courses, equipment, and teachers for the handicapped; special programs for the retarded; and vocational guidance and counseling for continuing adult education. Here the ingenuity of local school authorities is at a premium, and the act calls for all the inventiveness they can muster in providing new programs and extending old ones.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACT

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 was drafted in response to a widely felt need for improved vocational education. It was the first major overhaul of the vocational education system

since passage of the George-Barden Act after World War II.

Numerous changes were adopted to bring curricula more into line with current needs, deemphasizing agricultural and home economics training and providing for more comprehensive training in the complex skills demanded in today's labor force.

Several provisions of the act will be particularly helpful to disadvantaged young people.

The *area vocational-technical school* construction program is based upon recognition that small independent school units, most of which must operate on a limited tax base, cannot offer the broad curricula needed by out-of-school young people and adults. Some 125 area schools in 41 States were authorized in fiscal year 1965, and the States' projected programs indicate the need for 1,333 more by 1975.

The *work-study program* gives financial assistance to students in full-time attendance in vocational education courses. Students who need financial aid to begin or continue in a vocational training program may earn up to $350 a school year through part-time employment for as many as 15 hours a week in a public agency.

In spite of a late start (appropriations were made in September 1964), a total of $3.5 million was expended in fiscal year 1965 to help 15,000 needy vocational education students. During fiscal year 1966 close to 85,000 students will have been served, at a cost of about $25 million.

The program has not been in operation long enough to show its effect on the dropout rate. States report, however, that they are encouraging needy students to attend area schools by offering to place them in the work-study program. Interest is high and it is felt that many potential dropouts have been encouraged to stay in school and complete their vocational education program.

The amount which a student can earn is so much less in the work-study programs than in the Neighborhood Youth Corps that students who have an alternative might be expected to choose NYC jobs. (NYC pays $750 for 15 hours work per week over a school year, as compared with a maximum of $350 under the work-study program.) Few schools sponsor both types of programs, however. And the NYC is most likely to operate in urban areas and often does not reach area vocational schools located outside the cities.

The work-study program, on the other hand, is available to boys and girls only 15 years old (who are below NYC age). The purpose of this provision is to offer financial aid and work experience early enough to be a preventive factor in dealing with potential dropouts.

Progress has been made also in setting up *experimental, developmental, and pilot programs* designed to meet the special vocational needs of youth. In fiscal year 1965, 44 projects were approved which dealt with disadvantaged youth. To date in fiscal 1966, an additional 16 projects have been financed. While it is too soon to expect meaningful results from these projects, vocational educators are showing increased interest in participating in such projects.

In addition, a number of States are establishing or expanding vocational education programs tailored to the needs of disadvantaged or geographically isolated young people. Many such programs in larger cities are concentrating on problems of minority groups, immigrants, and people in slums. Others, in rural, mountain, and border areas, have been directed toward isolated pockets of deprivation.

Several States have added a specialist or consultant in program planning for these groups. Some are adding to their curricula courses in occupations which they believe will be suited to the academically handicapped. Some are working with correctional institutions for youth, or with physically or mentally handicapped young people. In addition, new or increased emphasis is being placed on remedial work and social adjustment classes. Some communities and States are also trying to provide short-term courses and terminal programs in high schools to assist dropouts.

HIGHER EDUCATION ACT

Passage of the Higher Education Act of 1965 opened up a number of new pathways to educational opportunity. Funds were made available to help colleges and universities provide community services, to improve libraries, to strengthen young or weak colleges, to give financial assistance to students, to strengthen teaching and improve undergraduate instruction, and to aid construction of needed facilities.

This act expands the grants available to colleges and universities for work-study programs initiated under the Economic Opportunity Act. Originally limited to students from low-income families, the program now applies to all students who need help in meeting the cost of a college education. Students in this program may work as much as 15 hours a week while they attend college full time, or 40 hours a week during vacations.

Payment of the minimum wage of $1.25 is anticipated for most students. The hours limitation means that a student may expect, based on his needs, to earn up to $300 a semester, or as much as $1,200 if he works full time during vacations.

The jobs may be either on or off campus. Wherever possible they are related to the students' special interests or career ambitions, thus providing transferable work experience. Many off-campus jobs are part of the community war on poverty. Some have been associated with community action projects, including Project Head Start.

Initial appropriations were approved late in 1964. During the spring semester, over 38,000 students in 674 colleges were enrolled. The fall semester of 1965 showed a substantial gain, with 108,000 students enrolled in over 1,100 colleges. A third of the students were freshmen. About 45 percent were women, although women represent only 39 percent of all college students.

The act also provides for educational opportunity grants to qualified high school graduates of exceptional financial need, to permit them to attend college. These grants range from $200 to $1,000.

These provisions, together with other student aid programs authorized by the Congress, provide considerable flexibility in helping students meet ever-increasing college costs — through jobs, scholarships, subsidized loans, and insurance. The National Defense Student Loan Program, which provides direct loans to high school graduates accepted for enrollment by colleges and universities or to college students in need of help with expenses, is being converted to a subsidized loan program utilizing private credit. A much larger subsidized low-interest insured loan program is authorized by the Higher Education Act.

Another important aspect of the act is its contribution to raising the level of education in elementary and secondary schools. A National Teacher Corps is authorized, consisting of experienced teachers and teacher-interns for disadvantaged schools. Fellowships for graduate study are offered to persons who are pursuing or plan to pursue a career in elementary or secondary education. Grants are also available to pay part of the cost of improving teacher training programs in colleges and universities.

HIGHER EDUCATION FACILITIES ACT

Recognizing that the national security and welfare demand that our youth be assured opportunity for full development of their intellectual capacities, this act provides for grants and loans to institutions of higher education for construction or improvement of undergraduate facilities, and construction of graduate schools or cooperative graduate centers. The number of college students is expected to double between 1960 and 1970, and the funds necessary to keep pace with such an increase cannot be furnished by States or municipalities, or by private contributions.

The expectation that public community colleges and technical institutes will contribute strongly to post-secondary education is reflected in the provision that 22 percent of the total appropriation shall go to such institutions. The other 78 percent goes to other public institutions of higher education and to private junior colleges and technical institutes. All of the grants are restricted to projects which contribute substantially to expanding enrollment capacity.

EXTENSION OF GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING SERVICES

Since 1958 Federal financial aid has been available to States to establish and maintain (1) a high school testing program to identify outstanding students and (2) a program of guidance and counseling in public high schools to encourage students to finish high school and go on to institutions of higher learning. Amendments in 1963 and 1964 extended guidance and counseling programs to public elementary schools and to public junior colleges and technical institutes, and testing programs to nonpublic as well as public schools.

Appropriations already made or authorized will by the end of fiscal year 1968 double the

original contribution of the Federal Government. Significant gains have already been made. Services have been increased and the improved services have certainly contributed to the rising proportion of high school graduates who go on to college or technical training.

Nevertheless, national testing, counseling, and guidance needs are only beginning to be met. The number of dropouts is still far too high, the number of disadvantaged young people who need such services is still very large, and many pupils in elementary and secondary schools are not yet adequately served.

Federal funds are available for counseling and guidance institutes to meet part of the personnel shortage underlying these unmet needs, and to improve the quality of counseling services. Since the start of the institute program in 1959, enrollments in both summer and academic-year institutes have totaled close to 20,000. In 1966–67, an enrollment of 2,000 is expected. However, according to estimates by the U.S. Office of Education, about 63,000 more counselors would be needed in 1965–66 to reach a desirable counselor-pupil ratio, and in 1970 the shortage of counselors may still be close to this figure.

PROJECT HEAD START

A major experiment in prevention of educational failure was launched during 1965 as part of the War on Poverty.

The idea for Project Head Start grew out of recent experimental work demonstrating that school failure, including dropping out, is predictable at a very early age, and that remedies applied at an equally early age are extremely effective.

Many of the children from disadvantaged homes are already 6 months behind when they enter first grade, and thus start their school lives with a crippling handicap. In overcrowded classrooms, with teachers not specially trained to deal with their problems, they slip steadily farther behind and eventually lose all contact with the kind of teaching supplied.

Project Head Start signed contracts with agencies in all 50 States to bring some 560,000 children into Head Start classes for a 6- to 8-week session during the summer. Integrated classes, no more than 15 children per class, and classes made up of at least 85 percent of very poor children were required in each project. Sponsors also had to provide medical, social, psychological, and other services. Many children were helped who had never before seen a doctor or dentist, and who needed glasses, hearing aids, or prosthetic appliances. Every group of children had at least one full-time teacher and one full-time assistant teacher, along with numerous other full-time and part-time helpers.

Though no official evaluations are as yet available on the accomplishments of the 1965 summer operation, substantial improvements have been noted in the children's originally low performance levels. Parents have been drawn into closer contact with the schools, and many have for the first time become aware of the opportunities the schools open up for their children.

The longrun impact of this program may be felt as much by the parents of these children as by the youngsters themselves. The attitudes of many of these parents towards education and other cultural values have been evidently affected, in ways which should benefit not only their families but also the communities in which they live.

The effect on teachers and other staff also was electric. An intensive 6-day training program was conducted, which gave many of the teachers an entirely new approach to teaching. Working with smaller groups of children was stimulating and is expected to lead to a much stronger demand for smaller classes, at least in primary grades. Both teachers and other staff have said they intend to relate their experiences to their work with older children during the current school year.

It is estimated that about 100,000 children will be enrolled in full-time projects in the 1965–1966 school year. The number is expected to expand to 500,000 in the summer of 1966. Additional funds are being spent to provide followup care and remediation for children from the 1965 projects who were diagnosed as needing remedial help.

Full use will be made of the year-long projects to train additional staff, so that the operation can be broadened as rapidly as possible. Furthermore, continued use will be made of volunteers.

Project Head Start, like other programs dealing with disadvantaged youth, has found it difficult to deal with the general shortage of remedial and other skilled personnel. The effective use of

volunteers as teaching assistants and aides working with certificated and highly trained teachers demonstrates how heretofore untapped resources can be mobilized to meet educational needs long deemed beyond the power of the community to staff.

Conclusions and Recommendations

A longrun solution to the problem of jobless youth has both economic and educational dimensions. Its achievement will depend, first of all, on success in our national effort to speed economic and employment growth and thus open up expanding job opportunities for the mounting youth population. The second essential is sharp reduction in the numbers of youth who leave school and start looking for full-time work without the education and training generally demanded of the present labor force. To so constrict the stream of ill-prepared young people will, in turn, require strengthening of education at all levels from preschool upward, coupled with widened opportunities for effective occupational training.

The magnitude of the challenge to educational and training institutions which this implies is paralleled, fortunately, by the great strengthening of their financial resources under recent legislation (as indicated in preceding sections). But unremitting efforts by educators, government officials, employers, and community leaders will be required to take full advantage of the opportunities thus afforded. Some of the directions of action needed for progress in educating and training disadvantaged (as well as gifted and average) youth are outlined below.

So long as there remain substantial numbers of unemployed out-of-school youth who cannot qualify for existing jobs, special measures aimed at helping these young people enter the mainstream of economic life will also be needed. Here again, substantial progress is being made through the training, work-training, and other remedial programs established in the past 4 years (as described in preceding sections). There is need now to garner the insights and lessons provided by the initial experience in operating these programs and to build on this experience in continuing efforts to solve the complex and often intractable problems of disadvantaged youth.

STRENGTHENING OF EDUCATION

The national goal in education must be the optimum development of all the American people—children, youth, and adults at all levels of ability and from all socioeconomic backgrounds. Because of the severe lag in education of the underprivileged—which has contributed heavily to teenage joblessness, frustration, and delinquency—special efforts are called for to speedily improve educational opportunities for the poor, especially nonwhites. No more important step could be taken in this direction than rapid implementation of the provisions for Federal aid to poor school districts under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

Objectives which should be actively pursued with the financial aid offered under this act include:

—Teaching pupils to read early (preferably before the end of the second grade) and giving them basic mathematics skills in early grades.

—Broader accommodation to individual differences in learning capacity and speed, with emphasis on the needs of slow learners.

—Provision of the facilities and teachers required for smaller classes, and more preparatory and in-service training of teachers in dealing with disadvantaged youth.

—Broadened curriculum content to increase the appeal to students not interested in present academic programs. Also wide adoption of improved teaching techniques, including extension to regular schools of the new methods and materials developed in the Job Corps and in experimental and demonstration projects. Application of these pioneering developments in elementary education might help considerably to aid the school adjustment of children from uneducated families, and to raise their achievement levels and reduce dropout rates.

—Strengthening of counseling services, especially in elementary schools, in order to identify and help underachievers and potential dropouts as early as possible. Also, greater emphasis in secondary school counseling programs on students not bound for college.

Greatly extended opportunities for both preschool and post-high school education are much needed also. *Preschool education* can be of great importance in aiding the social adjustment and raising the performance level of children from underprivileged backgrounds. Project Head Start should therefore be continued and broadened. And local school systems should consider the need to move ahead in establishing and strengthening nursery school and kindergarten programs.

Much more general availability of *free public education for 2 years past high school* would enable more young people to prepare for rapidly expanding technical occupations and, in so doing, help to meet the economy's demand for trained workers. Full advantage should accordingly be taken of Federal financial aid to improve and extend the network of community colleges and other public post-secondary institutions.

The strengthening of *vocational education* currently going on throughout the country is a related development of great significance in the occupational preparation of youth. The ultimate objective here must be a balanced program, with room for all groups in the community in need of vocational training. While pursuing this objective, however, State educational authorities and local school systems should give as much priority as possible to special programs for disadvantaged youth who would otherwise be unable or unwilling to stay in school. The work-study program (already implemented in many communities, as described above) should be extended. And there should be wide development of vocational education programs tailored to the needs of youth with low achievement levels and other handicaps.

STRENGTHENING OF PROGRAMS FOR JOBLESS YOUTH

Program Levels

The training, work-training, and other remedial programs for jobless youth, while much more extensive than any undertaken before, still reach only a fraction of the young people in need of help. This conclusion is indicated by figures presented previously in this chapter. It is also supported by data on enrollments in major programs in fiscal year 1965 and projected enrollments for fiscal years 1966 and 1967 in table 24.

The universe of youth estimated to be in need of special youth programs is roughly 3 million,[8] more than 5 times the total number that will be served by all these programs during 1966. This

TABLE 24. MAJOR PROGRAMS SERVING DISADVANTAGED YOUTH, FISCAL YEARS 1965–67

[Enrollments or jobs]

Program	Out-of-school programs	In-school programs	Summer programs [1]
1965			
Total	126, 741	117, 000	114, 000
Neighborhood Youth Corps	62, 000	102, 000	114, 000
Job Corps	10, 241	----------	----------
MDTA training	54, 500	----------	----------
Vocational education work-study program	----------	15, 000	----------
1966 [2]			
Total	159, 000	185, 000	196, 000
Neighborhood Youth Corps	60, 000	100, 000	[3] 196, 000
Job Corps	30, 000	----------	----------
MDTA training	69, 000	----------	----------
Vocational education work-study program	----------	85, 000	----------
1967 [2]			
Total	172, 000	160, 000	165, 000
Neighborhood Youth Corps	64, 000	125, 000	165, 000
Job Corps	45, 000	----------	----------
MDTA training	63, 000	----------	----------
Vocational education work-study program	----------	35, 000	----------

[1] Many summer program enrollees are also served by the in-school program.
[2] Estimated.
[3] Includes 31,000 jobs provided during the summer of 1965.

[8] No exact figure is available on the number of disadvantaged youth. However, a number of estimates have been made, combining population and family income data which agree roughly on the 3 million total.

3 million includes 1.8 million out-of-school, and 1.2 million in-school youth. In view of the continuing sharp increase in the youth population, the number of disadvantaged youth in need of aid will probably tend to rise over the next several years. (This assumes avoidance of greatly escalated war involving forced-draft operation of the economy and a sharp increase in the proportion of youth called for military service.)

Both the in-school programs and those for out-of-school youth need to be continued at the highest levels possible within the limits of budget resources. Many smaller communities and sections of major cities are reached inadequately or not at all by MDTA, NYC, or other programs for jobless youth. The need for reaching small towns and rural areas should be emphasized in program planning for the coming year.

Program Improvements

More effective coordination of the varied capabilities and resources of the new youth programs and supporting community services should be a major objective in the year ahead. Reflecting the newness of the programs and the pressure to get started quickly in meeting young people's urgent needs, problems both of overlap and of gaps in service have arisen in some areas. Efforts are already underway to define and clarify areas of responsibility, and these should be rapidly carried to fruition.

At the same time, more definite criteria for selection of candidates for each program should be worked out. With these criteria as a guide, the screening and referral procedures used, chiefly by local Employment Service offices, should be tightened. The aim must be to direct each youth to the type of service or program best suited to his needs and abilities.

Strengthened supporting services represent another major need in connection with many NYC and MDTA youth projects, especially in communities where there is no Youth Opportunity Center with readily available counseling resources. Arrangements for supporting services should be given greater emphasis in the planning and approval of projects.

More free medical and dental services for youth with health problems are particularly needed in many communities, and efforts should be made to enlist community support in providing these services. If this is not widely forthcoming, consideration should be given to other means of providing health as well as other services for MDTA and NYC enrollees.

The new community mental health facilities now being developed (under the Mental Retardation Facilities and Community Mental Health Construction Act of 1963) offer opportunities to establish behavior clinics for maladjusted and delinquent youth. Such clinics should be included in the new facilities wherever possible—with support and cooperation from other youth-serving agencies in the community.

General application of the most successful techniques and procedures, as indicated by the achievements of different projects, should be sought. The pioneering and essentially experimental character of the new programs has been one of their key features and must not be lost. But systematic efforts are needed to evaluate the methods and results of different projects and to make the findings available to directors of comparable projects.

There is need also to hold all sponsors of work-experience projects to the high standards of planning and constructive supervision used in the most successful projects.

Strengthening the educational and training content of NYC projects, especially for out-of-school youth, is another direction in which action is underway and should be extended. Some young people need the entire period of work experience provided by these projects to develop the work habits and attitudes required for regular employment and even for occupational training. For others a progressive work experience, with on-the-job training aspects, would be of greater benefit.

An approach with which experimentation was recently initiated is *cooperative NYC-MDTA projects* involving a combination of work experience and training taken concurrently. It is recommended that combined projects of this kind be undertaken in several cities as soon as possible.

Intensive *job development efforts* for youth are a necessary corollary to current work-training programs. The YOC's and other Employment Service offices should work with employers toward relaxation of unrealistic hiring requirements and breaking down of prejudice in hiring and pro-

motion. More employers should be urged also to use available training programs to upgrade the skills of present workers, thus making room for new entry workers. The same kind of intensive, coordinated effort that is now being directed to developing their employability should be applied to finding permanent employment for enrollees.

In training, work-experience, and placement programs, the emphasis for the coming year should be increasingly on *identifying the specific needs of individuals.* Ways must be found to apply the necessary help at the pace and in the sequence which will be most productive for the individual.

7

FARMWORKERS

American agriculture has been the source of some of the Nation's greatest economic and social achievements. Sweeping advances in farm technology have brought large gains in the production of food and fiber over the years—increases amounting to almost 50 percent since the end of World War II. The country's agricultural output not only supplies most of the food and fiber needed by our rapidly expanding population but helps to feed people in other countries as well.

While still relatively low, the average standard of living of farm people has been rising steadily. Today, a substantial proportion of all farm families have electricity, telephones, automobiles, and tap water. Their rising level of educational attainment, together with the widespread availability of radio and television, has brought their aspirations, knowledge, and customs into the mainstream of American life.

Nevertheless, farm people continue to face severe problems of underemployment and poverty. The average per capita income of farm residents is less than two-thirds that of the nonfarm population. The very abundance of farm production has created downward pressures on farm prices and incomes, requiring Government action to stabilize prices and production of some crops.

The wages and working conditions of hired farmworkers are generally far below those of nonfarm workers, and such workers are generally excluded from the protective social insurance and labor standards legislation which cover most of the nonagricultural work force. Beset by unemployment and underemployment, many farmworkers travel from area to area to get enough work to earn a livelihood.

These problems have forced farm operators, hired farmworkers, and their families to make major adjustments. Millions have left their farm homes to seek a new life and a new livelihood in urban areas, while a substantial number of smaller farmers have become hired farmworkers. This mass migration has left in its wake hundreds of stagnating rural communities. It has also intensified, in the receiving cities, the problems of slum areas overcrowded with new arrivals attempting to adjust to urban life and work.

In the past, such large-scale adjustments have been worked out eventually through the uncoordinated decisions of millions of workers and employers responding to the pressures of the competitive job market. Recent Government manpower programs reflect the need for a more rationalized approach to the development and use of human resources and to the changing manpower requirements of both agricultural and nonagricultural industries. They also reflect a national determination to ameliorate the social and economic problems accompanying these changes—problems too complex and broad in scope to be solved by the affected workers, employers, and local communities.

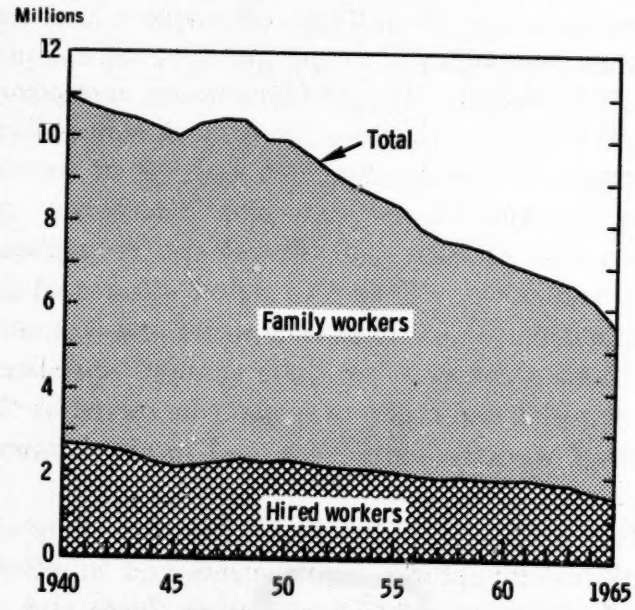
This chapter considers the transformation of agricultural manpower requirements and its effects on the farm population and work force and on rural and urban communities. It discusses the Government programs which are helping to cushion the adjustments of the people and areas af-

fected, with emphasis on the new manpower programs initiated during the 1960's. The final section considers the need for new or expanded Government services aimed at eliminating the paradox of simultaneous abundance and poverty in American agriculture.

Agricultural Manpower Requirements

Underlying the transformation of agricultural manpower requirements over the years are basic trends in agriculture's structure, processes, and relative position in the economy. The most dramatic trend has been the marked decline of farm manpower requirements in the face of rapidly rising output. Man-hours of farmwork fell by more than half between 1947 and 1965, while farm output increased over 40 percent. In 1965, the average farmworker produced enough food and fiber to supply himself and 36 other consumers; 20 years ago, he supplied only 15 persons. Annual average employment on farms—including farm operators, unpaid family workers, and hired workers—fell from 10 million in 1945 to 5.6 in 1965, or about 45 percent.[1] (See chart 18.)

Chart 18 **Farm employment has shown steady decline, especially for family workers.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Agriculture.

The sharpest drop occurred in the number of farm operators and unpaid family workers—from 7.9 million in 1945 to 4.1 million in 1965, or by 48 percent. Average employment of hired workers decreased more slowly—from 2,120,000 to less than 1,500,000, or 30 percent. But hired workers put in fewer days of work now, on the average, than they did years ago.

The main cause of declining manpower requirements has been new technology, particularly mechanization. The number of tractors and motor trucks on farms has doubled since World War II. Ingenious new machines to cultivate and harvest crops, such as the cotton harvester, have come into general use. Four-fifths of the cotton crop was harvested by machine in 1965, compared with less than one-tenth in 1950.

Mechanization has reduced the number of farm jobs by requiring less labor per acre and per farm animal, by providing an economic stimulus for combining farms into fewer and larger units that use labor more efficiently, and by transferring some former farm tasks to nonfarm industries. For example, man-hours involved in producing and feeding work animals have, in effect, been transferred to nonagricultural establishments producing and servicing farm machinery.

Labor needs have also been reduced by the use of modern chemicals to stimulate and control plant growth, increase crop yields, and control

[1] Data on farm employment in this section are from the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Statistical Reporting Service series on farm labor. These data differ from those on agricultural employment in the Review of Current Developments and appendix tables of this report, which come from the Department of Labor's *Monthly Report on the Labor Force* and are based on different survey coverage and employment concepts. For historical data and an explanation of the Department of Agriculture series on farm output, man-hours of farmwork, and output per man-hour cited in this chapter, see annual revisions of *Changes in Farm Production and Efficiency* (Washington: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service), Statistical Bulletin No. 233.

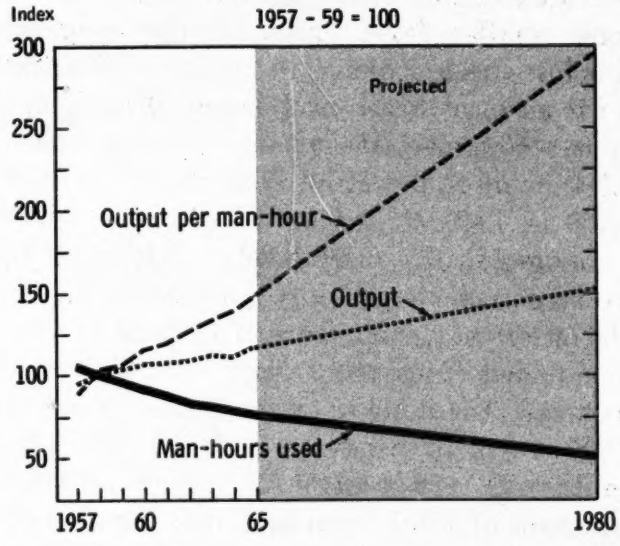
weeds and pests, as well as by the development of new varieties of seeds and plants.

Government programs to stabilize agricultural prices and income by limiting or diverting excess acreage and production have helped many farmers improve their earnings from agriculture, but they also reduced farm jobs in many cases. The cutback of cotton production under the Food and Agriculture Act of 1965, for example, together with continuing mechanization, will substantially reduce the need for hand labor in some areas. Several thousand tractor drivers and mechanics may also be displaced unless other crops are grown on the land removed from cotton production. Other provisions of the act which will lead to shifts and reductions in manpower requirements relate to the lease and transfer of cotton, rice, and tobacco allotments, the transfer of acreage allotments on public lands, disposition of allotments when parts of a farm are sold, and the cropland adjustment program. This last program provides for the diversion of land currently producing surplus crops to conservation uses.

A continuing decline in farm manpower requirements is expected. Although total farm output will increase, output per unit of labor will grow even faster. According to projections by the Department of Agriculture, man-hours of farm labor in 1980 will be 35 percent below the 1964 level. (See chart 19.)

Since weekly hours worked per farmworker are projected to remain at current levels,[2] declining total man-hours worked will result in equivalent cutbacks in the actual number of farmworkers. Thus, the annual average number of farmworkers would drop from 5.6 million in 1965 to about 4.0 million in 1980, with the average number of farm operators and unpaid family workers falling from 4.1 to 2.9 million and hired worker employment from 1.5 to 1.1 million. While sizable, these declines would represent a slowing in the rate of decrease compared with the last decade.

Chart 19 **Farm manpower needs will continue to decline as productivity gains exceed rise in output.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Agriculture.

SHORT-TERM NATURE OF FARM JOBS

Not only is agricultural employment declining, but also farm jobs for hired workers are becoming of increasingly short duration. This greater seasonality of farmwork is related to the mechanization of many hand operations, changes in marketing practices, and increasing crop specialization. Specialized commercial farming has gained as farmers have stopped growing products for their own subsistence, as the need to grow feed for farm animals has dropped off, and as new agricultural techniques and market developments have made it economically advantageous for individual farmers to concentrate their acreage in just a few crops.

With farm jobs shrinking in both number and duration, unemployment creates severe problems for hired farmworkers. About 700,000 of the 3.4 million persons who did some hired farmwork in 1964 experienced some unemployment during the year; approximately 160,000 were unemployed at least half of the year. These figures represent a high rate of unemployment, in view of the fact that the hired farmwork force includes many students and housewives who are in the labor force for only a short time during the year. Involuntary part-time employment is also prevalent. Today, only about 300,000 hired workers are employed year round on farms.

[2] The labor force estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that annual average hours worked per farmworker decreased from 50.6 hours per week in 1947 to 45.2 hours in 1958. Since then they have varied between 44.8 and 45.7 hours per week.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF FARMS

The shrinking number and growing size of farms have had an important influence on manpower requirements. Between 1947 and 1965, the number of farms decreased from 5.3 million to about 3.4 million, with the decrease concentrated among smaller farm units. Large commercial farms have been growing in number and accounting for an ever-larger proportion of agricultural output. Commercial farms reporting sales of $40,000 or more increased from 29,000 in 1939 to 106,000 in 1959 (based on sales figures adjusted for changes in the price level). Although these large farms constituted only 3 percent of all farms in the latter year, their share of all farm sales more than doubled (increasing from 15 to 32 percent). In contrast, the number of farms selling less than $10,000 worth of products dropped from almost 5.5 million in 1939 to about 3.3 million in 1959, and their share of total farm sales fell from 61 to 29 percent. Average acreage per farm rose from 178 in 1940 to 342 in 1965.

As farms increase in size, and as more farm operations are mechanized, the cost of buying or operating an economically viable farm becomes prohibitive for low-income people. The value of assets used in agricultural production on the average farm rose from about $6,000 in 1940 to $60,000 in 1965.

A related change is the sharp decrease in farm tenancy, particularly in the case of sharecroppers in the Southeastern States. Mechanization of work on such crops as cotton and peanuts and the resulting consolidation of farms into larger, more economical units led to the decline of this form of farm management. As the proportion of farms operated by tenants dropped from one-third in 1945 to one-fifth in 1959, the proportion sharecroppers represented of all farm operators fell from 8 to 3 percent.[3] The number of sharecroppers remaining in Southern agriculture is not known, but is certainly much below the 121,000 counted in the 1959 Census of Agriculture.

The trend toward fewer and larger farms has also been accompanied by a growing concentration of the hired work force on larger farms. Half of the Nation's farmers do not hire any workers at all, and 89 percent of all expenditures for hired labor in 1964 were on the 29 percent of farms that sold products valued at $10,000 or more.

[3] Sharecroppers are tenants whose landlords provide crop supervision and furnish the means of production. Sharecroppers pay the landlord a share of the crop (or sometimes cash rent, a share of livestock, or of livestock products).

SHIFTS IN CROP LOCATION AND PRODUCTION

The centers of cotton and vegetable production have been moving westward in recent years, particularly to the new lands opened by irrigation in the Southwest. Between 1939 and 1965, the production of cotton in both Carolinas, Georgia, and Alabama decreased from 26 to 14 percent of the total national output, while Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California increased their share from 30 to 50 percent. During the same period, the Pacific States increased their production of vegetables for processing from 22 to 44 percent of the national total. As manpower needs declined in the old production areas, rising short-term labor requirements in California and parts of the Southwest led to expanded recruitment of domestic migratory workers and foreign nationals.

Changes in demand for farm products are also reflected in agricultural manpower needs. Increased consumption of fruits and salad vegetables has stimulated higher production in these crops, which have relatively high seasonal labor requirements for harvesting. Expanding production has sustained the demand for seasonal hired workers, including migratory workers, and contributed to a concentration of hired farmworkers in the principal fruit and vegetable States. California, Texas, and Florida accounted for one-third of the total wages paid to farm labor in 1964. Ten States accounted for half of all wages paid to hired farmworkers.

Although the decline in hired worker employment has been slowed by the growth of large farms and by rising fruit and vegetable production, further reduction is expected. New developments in the mechanization of fruit and vegetable harvests are cutting manpower requirements. Other commodities which still employ a substantial number of hired workers include cotton, tobacco, dairy products, livestock, and sugarcane. According to estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, hired workers accounted for less than 30 percent of all man-hours worked in agriculture in 1965.

Farm Incomes and Wage Rates

Low incomes and low wage rates in agriculture and the drop in farm labor needs have combined to produce an exodus of agricultural manpower to nonfarm work in rural and urban areas. (See chart 20.) Although the per capita disposable personal income of farm residents has been rising, it was only 63 percent of the nonfarm average in 1965.

INCOME OF FARM OPERATORS

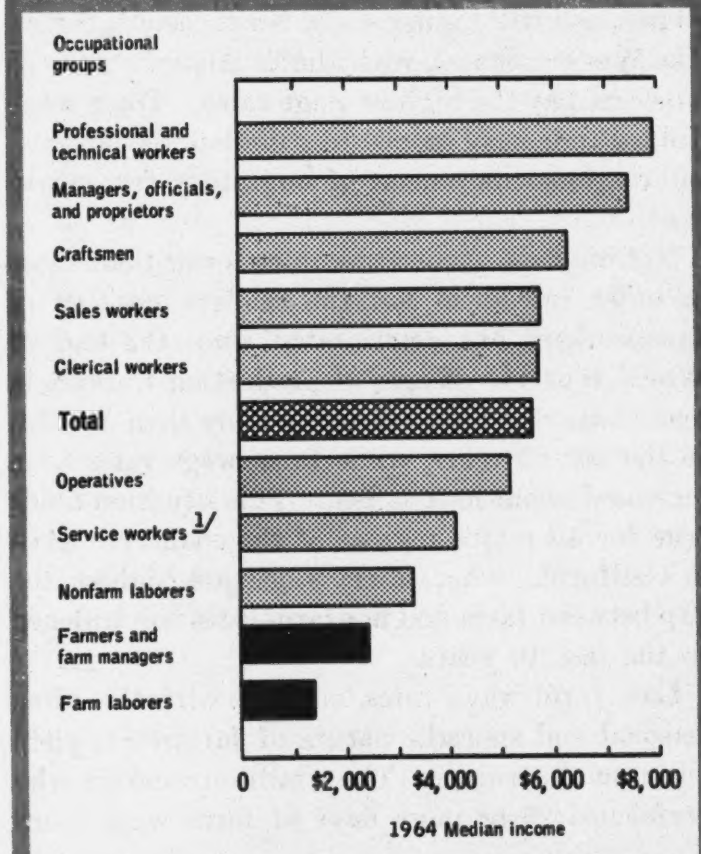
Realized net income from farming averaged $4,200 per farm in 1965, as compared with about $2,400 in 1949. This represented about a 40-percent gain in real income, after allowing for the rise in the cost of living. Nevertheless, a high proportion of farm operators still have earnings at the poverty level, even when their income from off-farm sources is added to the total. In 1964, about 45 percent of the families headed by a person engaged primarily in farming had money incomes of less than $3,000.

Because of the difficult economic adjustments faced by farm operators and the problems involved in keeping farms as viable economic enterprises, a considerable body of protective and supportive legislation has been enacted for this sector of the economy. The cornerstone of this legislation is programs to stabilize the supply and demand of farm products, to rationalize the marketing structure, and to support prices and farm income. Currently, this basic effort is embodied in the Food and Agriculture Act of 1965. The importance of such assistance is reflected in the fact that direct Government payments to farmers accounted for over $2.5 billion of the $44.4 billion national realized gross farm income in 1965.

Other government programs which have helped indirectly to bolster farm incomes include extensive research to improve farm production and marketing practices, crop insurance and emergency loans, conservation measures to help farmers maintain or improve their land use and potentials, farm operating and ownership loans, projects to provide low-cost electricity to the countryside, assistance to farmers' cooperatives, and marketing and other information services.

These programs help to make farming an economically feasible operation for large numbers of families at a time when the operation of farms has become a complicated and large-scale enterprise. Although they have not prevented the consolidation of small farms into larger units, they have tended to slow the out-movement of farm people, encouraged the development of new farm activities, and stimulated the creation of off-farm work opportunities for farm residents.

Chart 20 **Farmers and farm laborers have lower average incomes than any other occupational group.**



1/Excludes workers in private households.

Note: Data refer to median income from employment, including self-employment, of men in civilian labor force in 1964.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Commerce.

EARNINGS OF HIRED FARMWORKERS

The wage rates of hired farmworkers are lower than those of any other major occupational group. In addition, farmworkers do not usually have fringe benefits such as health insurance, paid life insurance, paid vacations, or premium pay for overtime common in nonfarm industries. They are generally excluded from unemployment insurance and workmen's compensation programs, even though farm jobs tend to be seasonal and intermittent and work around farm machines is often hazardous.

The average hourly wage rate for farmworkers who did not receive room and board was only $1.14 in 1965, compared with average hourly earnings of $2.61 (plus fringe benefits) for production workers in manufacturing. In two States, the average farm rate was under 70 cents per hour; in 12 States, under $1.00.

Wage rates are lowest in the South, where about half the farmworkers live and work or, in the case of migratory laborers, have their home base. Rates are somewhat higher in the North Central States, and still higher in the Northeastern States. The Western States, with almost 20 percent of the workers, pay the highest wage rates. These wage differentials have helped to stimulate the seasonal interregional movement of migratory farmworkers.[4]

Not only are farm wage rates lower than those in other industries but the relative position of farmworkers has deteriorated since the end of World War II. Wages of production workers in manufacturing industries have more than doubled in the last 20 years, while farm wage rates have increased about half as fast. This situation holds true for all major regions of the country. Even in California, where farm wages are highest, the gap between farm and nonfarm rates has widened in the last 10 years.

Low farm wage rates, coupled with the often seasonal and sporadic nature of farmwork, yield low annual earnings. The 2 million workers who performed 25 or more days of farm wage work during 1964 had average earnings of only $933 from this employment. Even the small minority (300,000) who worked year-round at farm wage jobs earned only $2,560.

Even when the earnings of secondary wage earners are taken into account, a high proportion of farmworker families remain at the poverty level. About 56 percent of all families headed by a hired farmworker had total money incomes of less than $3,000 in 1962. The proportion of households with incomes of less than $3,000 was particularly high among nonwhites (83 percent) and among those headed by migratory workers (71 percent).

Why do farm wages lag behind nonfarm wages? Information on this question is important for developing ways to raise substandard wage rates and for attacking poverty among farm people. The underlying factors are complex, and their relative importance probably varies substantially among regions and by type of crop.

Low wage rates are found where the supply of farm labor exceeds requirements, and where alternative nonfarm job opportunities are scarce. The relatively small size and low returns of many farm enterprises also have retarded the rise of farm wages.

In the Pacific Coast States, for example, where profitable large-scale farming is widespread, farm wage rates are the highest in the country. These rates are influenced also by the high level of industrial wage rates in this region and the existence of extensive nonfarm employment opportunities. Farm wage rates are also relatively high in the industrial Northeast—owing, in part, to competition from nonfarm employers. In sharp contrast is the situation in the rural South, where the farm labor supply is abundant and nonfarm employment opportunities are more limited.

The composition of the hired farm work force has also tended to depress wage levels. Contributory factors include the heavy reliance on casual workers and unpaid members of farm operator families, the farm laborers' relatively low education and skill attainment, the heavy representation of minority groups whose job opportunities are limited by discrimination, the availability of foreign workers and of migratory workers from the Southern States and Puerto Rico, and the fact that most farmworkers are not unionized. The

[4] The data here cited are from surveys by the U.S. Department of Agriculture. A further analysis of farm wages is available in *Hired Farmworkers—Data Pertinent to Determining the Scope and Level of a Minimum Wage for Hired Farmworkers* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, January 1964).

exclusion of farmworkers from most minimum wage laws also helps to account for the differential between farm and nonfarm wage rates.

On the other hand, factors which have tended to buoy wage levels include the heavy out-migration from farm areas and consequent reduction in the labor supply, the general upward movement of wage rates in nonfarm industries competing for the agricultural labor supply, and the rise in rural and urban living costs.

Farm Population Trends

Faced by a steadily declining demand for farmworkers, millions of farm people have turned to the nonagricultural economy for their livelihood. Rising nonfarm job opportunities offering the prospect of much higher earnings spurred their migration. Many young farm people also moved to nonfarm areas to take advantage of the better educational opportunities there.

Substantial numbers of workers with farm backgrounds manned defense and other industries during World War II. Most stayed on after the war's end, and many millions more have migrated to nonfarm areas since that time.

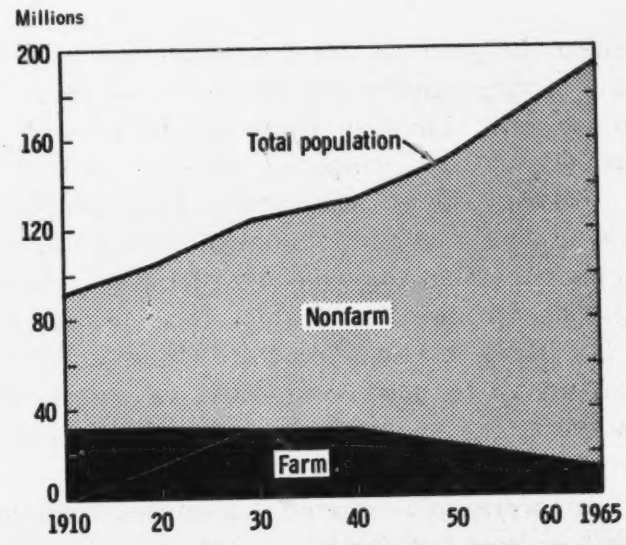
MOVEMENT FROM FARMS

The number of farm people is estimated to have reached a peak of 32,530,000 in 1916, just before the entry of the United States into World War I. After the war, the farm population declined slowly, but rose again during the economic depression of the 1930's.

The entry of the United States into World War II brought a sharp and still uninterrupted drop in the farm population. By 1965, little more than 12 million people remained on farms—only one-sixteenth of the total population. (See chart 21.)

The annual rate of net out-migration [6] has risen from 2.0 percent in the 1920–30 decade to 5.3 percent in the 1950–60 decade and 5.7 percent during the period 1960–65. During the 1950–60 decade the annual out-migration exceeded 1 million. But during 1960–65, the number of people leaving the farms averaged less than 800,000 per year, reflecting the drop in the farm population from which the migrants came.

Chart 21 **Farm population accounted for less than 7 percent of total in 1965—35 percent in 1910.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor, based on data from U.S. Department of Agriculture and U.S. Department of Commerce.

A point that is often overlooked is that out-movement from the farm population does not necessarily represent the physical movement of people from their homes. Farm population decline reflects two factors: (a) The heavy movement of people from farm to nonfarm areas, and (b) the loss that occurs when agricultural operations on a place are ended and the people residing there are reclassified from the farm to nonfarm category without actually making a physical move to a different dwelling. The amount of farm population decrease that has resulted from such reclassifications is not precisely known. It is believed that

[6] The annual rate of net out-migration is the annual average amount of net migration expressed as a percentage of the annual average farm population in the specified period.

this type of in-place farm-to-nonfarm change has been substantial, but that it is much less frequent than actual out-migration. For convenience, the terms "movement" and "migration" are here used interchangeably to signify both types of change.

Because of their lack of training for skilled or technical occupations, farm people who move into the nonfarm job market are likely to be employed in low-skilled or semiskilled blue-collar occupations in which manpower requirements have the lowest growth rates. But despite their limited job opportunities and the problems involved in adjusting to an urban setting, only about 1 out of 10 persons who have left the farm population have been returning to the farm in recent years.

CHANGING CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FARM POPULATION

Since the greatest out-migration has occurred among young adults, persons 20 to 44 years old now account for less than one-fourth of the farm population, compared with 31 percent of all nonfarm people. Conversely, farm people include much higher proportions of both youngsters and older persons than the rest of the population. The rising proportion of older farm people, who are not likely to move because of their difficulties in adjusting to new occupations or new homes, may constitute a growing manpower problem in many farm areas.

There were an estimated 1.5 million nonwhite farm people in 1965, or 12 percent of the total, but over 90 percent of the nonwhite farm population resides in the South.

In recent years, the Negro farm population has been declining much more rapidly than the white. Between 1960 and 1965, nonwhites decreased by 41 percent, while the white farm population decreased by 17 percent. One-third of the overall drop in farm population during this period can be attributed to the exodus of Negro people from farms.

PROJECTED FARM POPULATION

Although the future size of the farm population cannot be estimated precisely, it is evident that the 4-percent average annual rate of decline during the past 15 years will not continue indefinitely. Farm population losses during the next 15 years will probably not be as large, either in rate or in absolute numbers, as those since 1950.

But continuing out-migration from farm areas will be necessary unless there is a sharp drop in the farm birth rate. Even if farm employment should stabilize, farm families would still be producing many more children than could be employed in agriculture. The number of children born per farm family is sufficient to increase the farm population by at least 50 percent per generation.

The prospective slowdown in farm population decline and out-migration suggests that by 1980 farm people may number about 9 or 10 million, or about 4 percent of the total population. It is likely, however, that an additional 10 million persons not living on farms will be in families involved to some degree in farm operation or hired farmwork.

The Agricultural Work Force

Agriculture is the only major industry in which the majority of workers are self-employed people and unpaid members of their families. Workers in these categories made up two-thirds of the people employed on farms in 1965—4.1 million of the average of 5.6 million. Obviously, these farm operators and their families have employment problems and needs substantially different from those of hired farmworkers.

Employment of hired workers averaged only 1.5 million in 1965. However, because most farm jobs are short-term, the number of persons engaged in farm wage work at some time during the year was much higher, probably approximating the 3.4 million total estimated in 1964.

FARM OPERATORS AND UNPAID FAMILY WORKERS

Employment of farm operators and unpaid family workers has been declining sharply (from 7.9 million in 1945 to 4.1 million in 1965), largely as a result of the consolidation of many small farms. The sharpest drop occurred in the South Atlantic and South Central regions, where the number of operators and family workers fell by 57 percent between 1945 and 1965. Part of this large decrease is attributable to the disappearance of farms operated by sharecroppers.

Diminishing opportunities to operate small farms have curtailed the chances of farm youngsters to move up the agricultural career ladder. It is estimated that only 10 percent of all farm youth can expect to become operators of adequate-size commercial farms. Few young people can gather the substantial capital currently needed to buy and operate a farm. This is one of the major reasons why hundreds of thousands of young farm people have moved to the city, leaving behind them the older and less mobile groups.

Many displaced farm operators, particularly sharecroppers and tenant farmers in the Southeast, have chosen to remain in an agricultural occupation by moving into the ranks of hired farmworkers. Some have become migratory workers.

An increasing proportion of farmers have turned to off-farm work as a means of supplementing their farm earnings. The combined income may make possible a reasonably comfortable life on family-operated farms. About 4 of every 10 farm operators have off-farm jobs; half of them work off their farms for 200 days or more each year. Often, also, members of the farmer's family engage in off-farm work.

As might be expected, the relative dependence of the farm family upon income from off-farm work is greatest on the smaller farms. On farms with sales of less than $2,500 in 1964, an average of about 75 percent of total income came from off-farm sources. In contrast, on farms with sales of $10,000 or more, less than 20 percent of total income came from off-farm sources.

Income from off-farm sources and growth of efficient large-scale commercial operations have helped many of the people still living on farms to achieve substantial progress in their standard of living. The average level of education of farm operators has also advanced, though it is still far below that of the urban population. The proportion of farmers and farm managers with at least a high school education increased from 10 percent in 1940 to 28 percent in 1960.

COMPOSITION OF THE HIRED FARM WORK FORCE

The short-term nature of many farm jobs, their relatively low skill level and low wage level, and the fact that many farmworkers must take jobs away from home and live in housing furnished by their employers suggest some of the problems faced by hired farmworkers.

About 3.4 million people (excluding youngsters under 14) did some work on farms for cash wages during 1964.[6] Despite the sharp drop in farm labor requirements, the total number of hired farmworkers has shown little change in recent years. But increasing use has been made of seasonal workers and decreasing use of year-round workers.

Fully 40 percent, or 1.4 million, of the hired farmhands employed during 1964 were "casual workers" who put in less than 25 days of farm wage work during the year. This group averaged only 9 days of farmwork and earnings of $57. Altogether, they accounted for only 5 percent of all the man-days of farm wage work in 1964, but their number is increasing in the face of the general decline in farm employment.

Casual workers are primarily drawn from groups that are out of the labor force most of the year. About one-fifth are housewives. Another large group are students or other youths in need of temporary employment during school vacations; over one-fourth are 14 to 17 years old. Many come from nonfarm families, have incomes above the poverty level, and thus are not dependent on agriculture for a livelihood.

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[6] Gladys K. Bowles, *The Hired Working Force of 1964: A Statistical Report* (Washington: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service, August 1965), Agricultural Economic Report No. 82. Not included in this 3.4 million are persons who did some farm wage work in 1964, who died, entered the Armed Forces, or were otherwise removed from the survey population by the time of the Current Population Survey in December. The total number of persons who are excluded from the Economic Research Service survey probably does not exceed 500,000. Part of the excluded group are foreign nationals who did farm wage work in this country but who had returned to their homes before the survey. In 1964, approximately 200,000 foreign agricultural workers were contracted for work in the United States.

The second largest component of the hired farm work force consists of "seasonal" workers—those who perform 25 to 149 days of farm wage work during the year. The total number of seasonal workers—estimated at 1.3 million in 1964—has shown little change since World War II. The group as a whole averaged 64 days of farm wage work in 1964 and earnings of about $400. While seasonal workers generally have a stronger attachment to the farm labor force than casual workers, more than half are out of the labor force most of the year, and this proportion has probably been increasing.

Persons who depend primarily on farm wage work for a living are a relatively small minority of the farm work force. (See chart 22.) Only about 650,000 workers—one-fifth of the hired farm work force—were employed for 150 or more days in this type of work during 1964. And only half this number worked 250 or more days and can thus be considered year-round farmworkers.

The importance to agriculture of the approximately 650,000 regular workers is much more significant than their numbers suggest. These workers, constituting the relatively skilled and stable backbone of agricultural manpower, accounted for fully two-thirds of the man-days of hired farmwork in 1964. Yet during the last two decades, the number of regular farmworkers has declined substantially. Today, probably less than 350,000 farms have even one regular farmhand on the payroll.

What kinds of people are recruited for farm wage jobs? Among regular and seasonal workers, one-third were nonwhites in 1964. About three-fourths were men, and some two-fifths were heads of households.

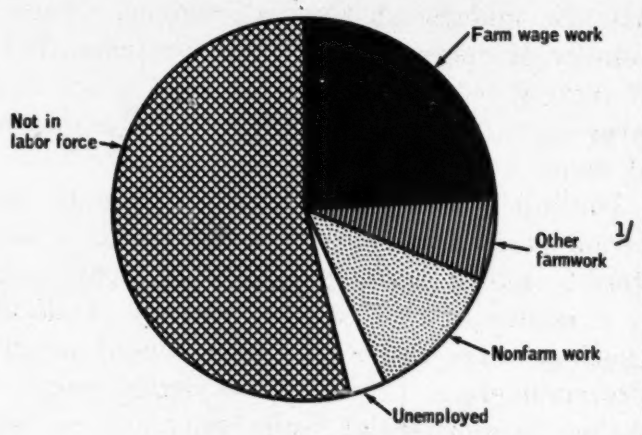
Educational attainment is relatively low, although rising. Only 8 percent of the workers aged 45 or over in 1964 had completed high school, and 83 percent never went beyond the eighth grade. In contrast, of those aged 18 to 24, 37 percent had completed high school and a large majority had progressed beyond elementary school.

An increasing proportion of farm wage workers do not live on farms. Two-thirds of the hired farm work force in 1949 were farm residents, but the proportion dropped to one-third by 1964. Those not farm residents are recruited by special mechanisms developed over the years to bring casual workers and potential farm employers together. Migratory labor and labor contractors play important roles. In many areas, "day-haul" programs arrange for employment of large numbers of casual workers on a day-by-day basis.[7]

Chart 22

Three out of four hired farmworkers have a chief activity other than farm wage work.

Chief activity of all persons doing hired farmwork in 1964



1/ Includes operating a farm and unpaid family labor.

Source: U.S.Department of Labor, based on data from U.S.Department of Agriculture.

MIGRATORY FARMWORKERS

Because of the short duration of most farm jobs, more than one-tenth of all farm wage workers are migratory workers, who travel from job to job outside of their home areas in order to piece together a livelihood. Many are accompanied by members of their families, who may also work and add to the family income.

Although many workers leave the migratory stream each year, the total number of migratory workers has remained for some time at about 400,000. The migratory work force has been replenished by displaced tenant farmers, hired farmworkers displaced by mechanization, an inflow of

[7] A day-haul operation is one in which seasonal farmworkers and employer representatives assemble each day at a designated pickup point to arrange for employment and transportation to farms on a day-by-day basis, under the supervision of State Employment Service agencies. The workers are returned to the pickup point at the end of the workday.

Mexican immigrants and Puerto Ricans, and some unskilled jobless workers from the city.

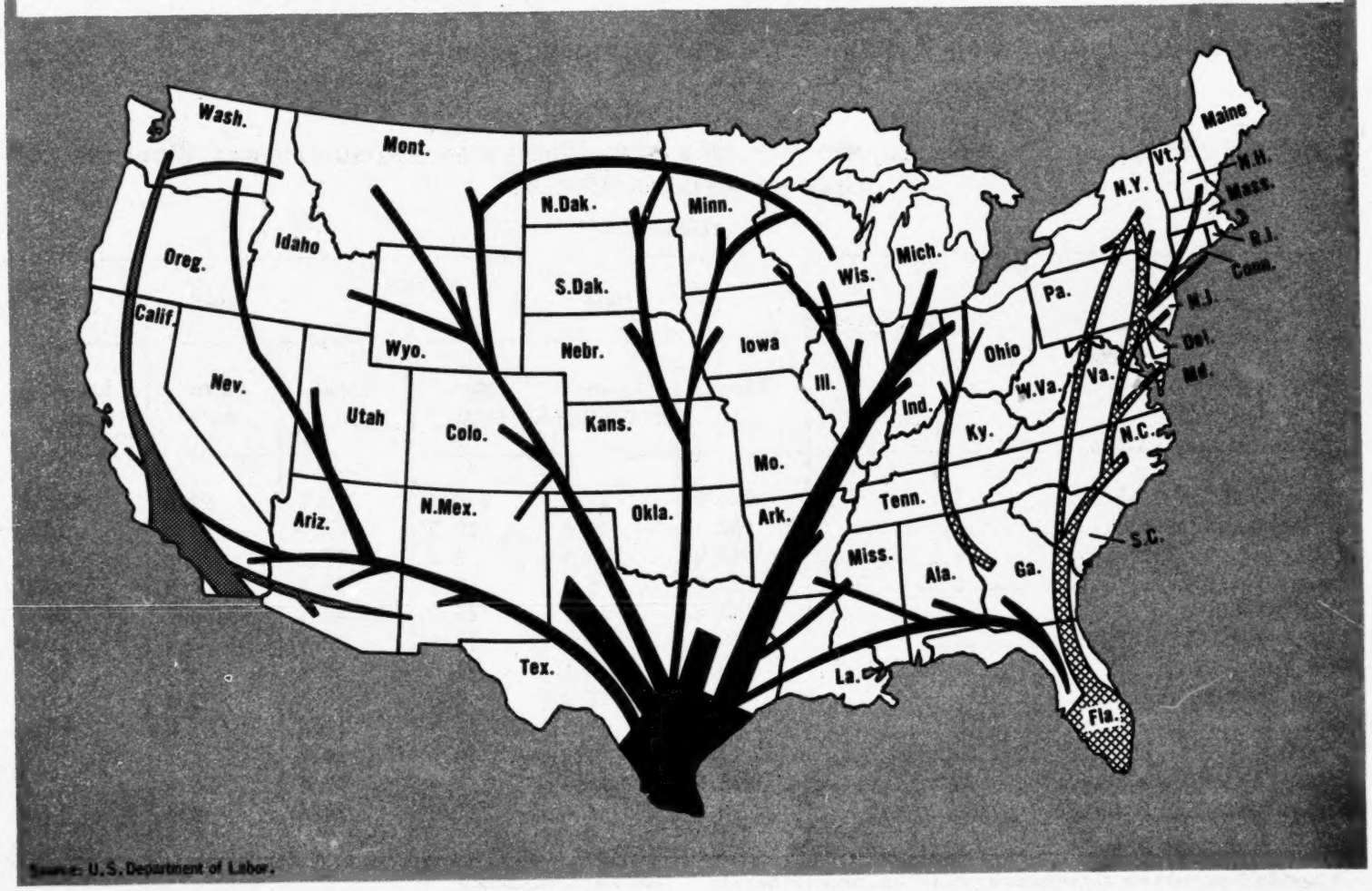
About three-fourths of the migratory workers during 1964 were men. Six out of ten were less than 35 years old. One-fourth were nonwhite, and many others were members of ethnic minority groups, such as Mexican-Americans and Indians.

There are three principal migratory streams—the eastern seaboard, the midcontinent, and the west coast. (See chart 23.) There are also many subcurrents, including important intrastate movements. In recent years, migrants have tended to strike out in new patterns in response to production shifts and in search of better jobs.

The eastern seaboard stream consists of 30,000 to 40,000 workers from Florida and other Southeastern States. Migrants move into Florida during the winter months to harvest vegetables, sugarcane, and citrus fruit. Beginning early in May, crews move northward through the South Atlantic States, stopping to work in North Carolina, Virginia, or Maryland on their way to New York and New Jersey; a few go as far as New England. Most of these groups make the return trip south in the fall.

The midcontinent stream involves nearly 100,000 workers, primarily of Mexican descent. The home base of most of these migrants is southern Texas. As winter vegetable work is completed in their home areas, some migrants move into the Rocky Mountain and Plains States for sugarbeet cultivation. After July, most of these migrants find employment in the midwestern fruit and vegetable harvest, but some move north to harvest wheat. Other Texas migrants go into the fruit and vegetable harvest of the Pacific Northwest. Still another movement is that of cotton choppers and cotton-harvest workers across Texas and into New Mexico, Arizona, and California. Cotton harvesting in the High Plains of Texas reaches a peak

Chart 23 **Major routes followed by migratory farmworkers.**



Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

in October and November, and many migrants arrange to be back in the State for this work, though increased mechanization of cotton harvesting has reduced this migratory movement.

The third major movement, along the west coast, involves employment in harvesting and other work on fruits and vegetables from southern California to Oregon, Washington, and Idaho. (See table 25.)

The social and economic problems associated with migrancy have long pointed to the need for improving the mechanisms of the agricultural job market. Migratory workers often live in substandard housing, have inadequate annual earnings, and may be exploited by unscrupulous crew leaders. Because they are transients, they often receive inadequate educational and health services, and are usually ineligible for public assistance or other community services in areas where they do not stay long enough to meet residence requirements.

A high proportion of the migrants travel as members of a crew directed by a crew leader. Crew leaders perform essential functions—arranging for jobs, screening and recruiting the individual workers, and transporting them to and from the job. They usually arrange for housing in the work areas, train and supervise their work force, and handle the payment of wages. They often give workers financial and other assistance and generally undertake to maintain order and good social relations in the crew. The crew system thus forms a social and economic framework that makes the large-scale movement of seasonal migrants a feasible means of meeting short-term farm labor needs. However, questions raised about the practices of some leaders with respect to their crews' earnings and other matters indicate a need for improvement of this key institution of the agricultural job market.

An important forward step in rationalizing the recruitment and distribution of migratory workers was the establishment of the Annual Worker Plan in 1954 by the Federal-State employment service system. Using information both on the number and characteristics of migratory workers and crews and on the labor needs of farm operators, public employment offices help to assign crews to employers in an orderly way. Efforts are made to arrange successive job referrals for the migrants, to minimize periods of joblessness. As the season progresses, changes in schedules are arranged where needed because of unforeseen changes in the timing of crop activities, the weather, the size of crews, and so on.

TABLE 25. ESTIMATED PEAK EMPLOYMENT OF DOMESTIC MIGRATORY[1] AGRICULTURAL WORKERS, BY SELECTED STATES, 1964–65

[Thousands]

State[2]	1964			1965		
	Total	Intra-state	Inter-state	Total	Intra-state	Inter-state
Total for U.S.[3]	264.2	77.8	186.4	270.7	87.5	183.2
California	52.1	33.6	18.5	65.5	43.0	22.5
Florida	15.2	6.0	9.2	17.8	6.4	11.4
Kansas	17.2	6.5	10.7	10.7	4.8	5.9
Michigan	55.6	10.6	45.0	49.7	9.1	40.6
New Jersey	13.6	.1	13.5	12.6	.1	12.5
New York	22.6	1.1	21.5	20.4	1.1	19.3
North Carolina	13.6	7.0	6.5	13.7	6.4	7.3
Ohio	12.5	.4	12.1	16.3	.5	15.8
Oregon	17.4	2.9	14.5	15.4	2.0	13.4
Texas	25.9	24.3	1.6	27.7	26.0	1.7
Washington	15.8	4.6	11.2	14.4	4.4	10.0

[1] Includes State residents who temporarily worked and resided in another county in the State or in another State.

[2] Only States with total employment of 10,000 or more in either 1964 or 1965 are shown separately.

[3] Refers to that time of year when employment of domestic migratory agricultural workers was at its peak for the U.S. as a whole.

During 1964, State Employment Service agencies contacted some 10,000 interstate migrant farmworker groups, including about 180,000 people from 34 States. Texas and Florida were the home States of nearly three-fourths of the participants in the plan that year.

Improvement of the crew system is the aim of the Farm Labor Contractor Registration Act, which became effective January 1, 1965. This act requires crew leaders to register at government offices, meet certain standards of reliability, and secure licenses—which are to be revoked if crew leaders engage in unscrupulous practices. Crew leaders are required to furnish workers with accurate information about the nature of prospective jobs, wage rates, and working conditions. Vehicles used for the interstate transportation of farmworkers in the crew must conform to standards of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and insurance protection must be obtained for the workers being transported.

The Department of Labor is making systematic efforts to acquaint crew leaders with the provisions of this act and help them meet licensing requirements. During calendar year 1965, 1,389 registration certificates and employee identification cards were issued to them.

Some progress has also been made in improving the living and working conditions of migratory farmworkers through Federal and State action. Thirty-two States have taken at least initial steps to insure sanitation and safety in agricultural labor camps, but such laws are difficult to enforce and some States do not even insist on running water or electricity in the camps. The Department of Agriculture makes loans to employers who need help in building decent housing for their farmworkers, and provides grants to public or nonprofit organizations that will provide farmworker housing as a community service.

The safety of migratory farmworkers traveling across State lines is the subject of regulations of the Interstate Commerce Commission. And under the Migrant Health Act of 1962, the U.S. Public Health Service makes grants to public and other nonprofit agencies to pay part of the cost of health services for the migrants and their families; such grants have been awarded in over half of the States. More recently, the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 has provided resources for programs to improve housing, sanitation, education, and child care for migratory and other seasonally employed farmworkers and their families.[8] Much remains to be done, however, to improve the conditions of migratory agricultural labor.

Reduction in Employment of Foreign Workers

Major progress was made in increasing job opportunities for American farmworkers during 1965, as sharp restrictions were imposed on the use of farmworkers from other countries.[9]

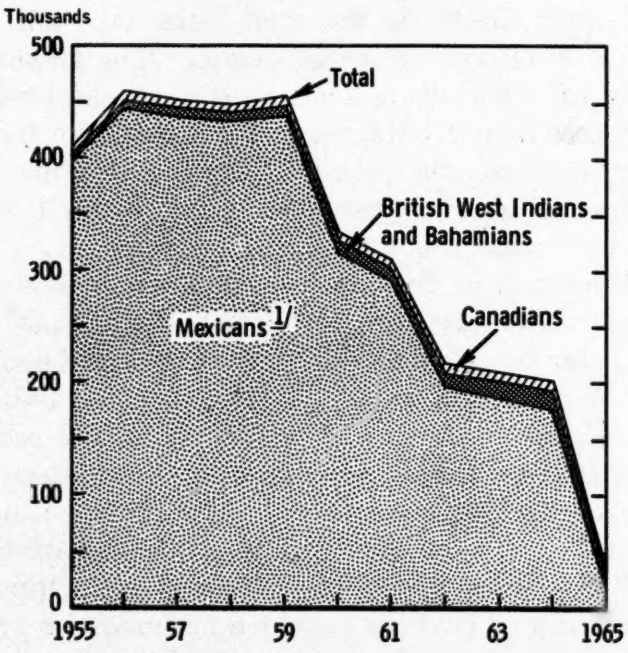
Recruitment of farm labor from outside the United States—primarily from Mexico, Canada, and the West Indies—has been resorted to for many years to meet temporary labor shortages. The number of foreign nationals admitted to the United States for temporary farm jobs reached a peak of more than 400,000 per year during the late 1950's. (See chart 24.) Then the use of foreign labor declined, primarily as a result of mechanization of the cotton harvest and new Government restrictions. By 1964, the number of foreign workers admitted was down to 200,000 and they were employed on only 1 percent of all farms in the country. However, they were still used in 29 States, with the heaviest concentrations in California, Texas, and Florida. (See table 26.)

Factors underlying the employment of foreign workers have included the difficulty of recruiting farmhands for short-term jobs, the relatively low level of farm wages, the availability of alternative work at higher pay in the growing nonfarm economy, and the increasing demand for farm labor in sparsely populated areas of the Southwest which have recently been opened to large-scale farming by irrigation. Lack of adequate housing for farmworker families also contributes to recruitment difficulties in areas where workers have to live on the

[8] These programs are described in greater detail on pp. 140–143 below.

[9] The Secretary of Labor has issued a full report on the action taken to curtail use of foreign workers on U.S. farms in 1965. See *Year of Transition—Seasonal Farm Labor, 1965* (Washington: U.S. Department of Labor, 1965).

Chart 24 **Foreign workers on temporary farm jobs show sharp decline.**



1/ Data for 1956-64 includes an average of 450 persons of other than Mexican nationality.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

farms. On the other hand, the availability of foreign labor has reduced farm operators' incentives to improve working and living conditions and raise wage levels so as to attract more American workers.

TERMINATION OF PUBLIC LAW 78

In recent years, employment of foreign workers on this country's farms had come under increasing criticism. It was stated that their employment restricted the job opportunities of domestic farmhands and eliminated normal competitive pressures to improve wages and working conditions in agriculture. It was pointed out also that large numbers of jobless workers might be available for farmwork if wages were increased and if farm employers had more incentive to intensify recruitment efforts.

For these reasons, Public Law 78 (the 82d Congress) was permitted to expire at the end of 1964. For 13 years, this law had authorized the admission to the country of Mexican workers for temporary farm jobs, on contracts and under the supervision of the Government.

TABLE 26. ANNUAL PEAK EMPLOYMENT OF FOREIGN AGRICULTURAL WORKERS,[1] BY SELECTED STATES, 1959 [2] AND 1964–65

[Thousands]

State [3]	1959	1964	1965	Nationality [4]
Total for U.S. [5]	308.2	92.8	23.7	----
Arizona	16.3	7.2	----	M
Arkansas	39.0	4.0	----	M
California	83.6	63.9	17.2	M
Colorado	5.7	6.0	----	M
Florida [6]	10.3	14.0	8.5	B
Maine	8.1	7.0	3.8	C
Michigan	11.0	12.8	----	M
New Mexico	19.5	1.3	----	M
Texas	136.8	15.6	----	M

[1] Foreign nationals contracted for temporary farmwork in the U.S.
[2] Year of all-time peak employment of foreign workers.
[3] Only States with employment of 5,000 or more in 1959 are shown separately.
[4] Only the most important national group is shown: M–Mexican; B–British West Indian; C–Canadian.
[5] Refers to that time of year when agricultural employment of foreign nationals was at its peak for the U.S. as a whole.
[6] Data for Florida refer to the crop season rather than the calendar year.

Foreign farmworkers can still be admitted under the Immigration and Nationality Act, but only under stringent regulations issued by the Secretary of Labor in December 1964. These regulations seek to assure that foreigners will not be admitted when unemployed American workers are available for farm jobs, or under circumstances that would have an adverse effect on domestic wage levels. Thus, prospective employers of foreign workers are required to offer wage rates to U.S. workers that would produce hourly earnings at least equal to rates specified in the new regulations. These rates vary from $1.15 to $1.40 per hour, depending on the wage level prevailing in the given State.[10] Generally, they represent an increase over previous wage levels.

Employers seeking to hire foreign workers are also required to offer payment of transportation costs for qualified domestic farmhands, and to provide them with family housing where feasible and necessary.

As a result of the termination of Public Law 78 and the administrative actions of the Department

[10] Lower rates were in effect in seven States during the first 3 months of 1965.

of Labor, there was a dramatic curtailment in the use of foreign contract workers on U.S. farms. During 1965, less than 36,000 were admitted to the United States for temporary farm jobs—as compared with 200,000 the preceding year.

The workers admitted during 1965 included 20,300 from Mexico, 10,900 from the West Indies, and about 4,700 from Canada. In September, the seasonal peak of foreign worker employment, only 24,000 held jobs on U.S. farms—one-fourth of the corresponding 1964 peak. Man-months of foreign labor use fell from 634,000 to 110,000, a year-to-year drop of 83 percent. Mexican "braceros," who worked in 17 States in 1964, were employed in only 1 State (California) in 1965.

The activities in which foreign workers were chiefly engaged in 1965 were harvesting citrus fruit and sugarcane in Florida; tomatoes, strawberries, and asparagus in California; and apples, shade tobacco, and potatoes in several Northeastern States. Foreign contract workers were eliminated from cotton cultivation and picking, sugarbeet thinning and weeding, and melon harvesting—activities in which thousands of Mexicans had been employed in previous years. Texas, Arizona, Arkansas, Michigan, and Colorado managed to produce their crops without a single foreign contract worker in 1965, although substantial numbers had been used in the past.

An innovation in reviewing the need for foreign labor was the appointment of panels consisting of university faculty members and other impartial persons in two States—California and Michigan—where large numbers of braceros were formerly used. These panels, set up during the spring of 1965, assisted in making findings of fact and recommendations with regard to employer requests for supplementary foreign labor. They also recommended procedures for meeting labor needs, recruiting domestic workers, and obtaining adequate farm wages and working and living conditions.

The panels conducted hearings and conferences at which State officials, representatives of the Department of Labor concerned with farm labor problems, growers, processors, union officials, and other interested parties were afforded an opportunity to testify.

In California, the panel recommended approval of employer requests for reduced numbers of foreign workers for the asparagus, strawberry, and canning-tomato harvests. In its final report to the Secretary, the California panel found that replacement of braceros by domestic workers had not adversely affected gross farm income or prices, while it benefited the economy of the State and the Nation. During the summer and fall of 1965, there were about 20,000 more Americans employed on California farms than a year earlier. Their farm wages were higher and working conditions somewhat improved.

Some crop loss from labor shortages occurred in the 1965 strawberry and asparagus harvests (which paid lower wages than the average for all crops). However, the gross income of strawberry growers exceeded the 1959–64 average and dollar reductions in the income of asparagus growers were minor. The panel noted a sizable reduction in the State's acreage of processing tomatoes, but this was in response to supply and demand pressures, and the value of the 1965 crop was 47 percent higher than the 1959–64 average. California's total agricultural income in 1965 was estimated to be higher than in the preceding year, while the price paid by consumers for California agricultural products remained fairly steady, for the most part.

More broadly, the panel recommended improvement in the Department of Labor's data-gathering and placement operations, increased efforts to improve housing for farmworkers, extension of protective labor legislation to farmworkers, payment of more adequate wages, and development by employers of better training and supervisory practices.

In Michigan, braceros had comprised 80 percent of the 16,000 seasonal hired workers who harvested pickling cucumbers in 1964. The Michigan panel reported that the complete elimination of braceros from the harvest in 1965 created some labor shortages and reduced crop acreage and production. Nationwide, however, production of this crop was higher than in 1964, owing to higher acreage in other areas.

On the basis of experience in the 1965 cucumber harvest, the Michigan panel recommended an improved recruitment program, increased efforts to fit the cucumber harvest into the regular migratory flow pattern so as to give the migrants a longer working season, better supervision of seasonal workers, and redesigning of wage incentives. The panel recommended that no foreign labor be authorized for the 1966 harvest season in Michigan.

EXPANDED RECRUITMENT EFFORTS

To help develop an adequate work force to replace foreign workers, the Department of Labor introduced several new recruitment approaches.

With the cooperation of State Employment Service agencies, mobile teams composed of State and Federal Government officials contacted employers to determine their labor needs and to develop job orders. The teams then developed and coordinated area programs to locate potential supplies of workers, to provide them with information on available farm jobs, and to facilitate hiring and transportation arrangements.

Because of the importance of young workers in the seasonal farm labor force, three special programs for the recruitment of youth were conducted in 1965—the A-Team program, the College Summer Recruitment Program, and Project Growth. The A-Team program—Athletes for Temporary Employment as Agricultural Manpower—was an effort to tap the large number of high school students interested in earning money during their summer vacations. Students were recruited in teams, under the supervision of their high school athletic coaches, for work in labor shortage areas. Transportation and housing arrangements were made for the youths, and their work and living environments were carefully supervised.

A-Teams, recruited in 25 States, were employed in California, Michigan, and Arizona. Although only 3,000 youths were placed in this initial effort, the A-Team program showed that a large reservoir of youthful manpower is available to harvest crops for employers who offer decent wages and working conditions.

Under the College Summer Recruitment Program, begun in 1964, the Department of Labor arranges for summer farm jobs for college students with the purpose of helping them earn money needed to continue their education. The success of a pilot project in 1964 and the limitation on foreign workers in 1965 opened the way for an expanded program. From slightly more than 100 in 1964, placements of college students grew to about 5,000 in 1965. Further expansion is expected in 1966.

Project Growth was undertaken in 1965 as an experimental program. Its primary objective was to develop ways of helping jobless urban youth, aged 17 to 21, who were having trouble in adjusting to employment or training or in adapting to adult responsibilities. The method tested was to arrange a period of seasonal agricultural employment, coupled with systematic counseling and other remedial services before, during, and after the farm job. While on the job, the young men lived in farm labor camps, where they were supervised by qualified counselors and group leaders who sought to make the work and camp life a meaningful experience in improving each individual's capabilities for work adjustment. Upon completion of the project, efforts were made to refer the youth to jobs or training. Although Project Growth added only several hundred youths to the farm work force, many of whom had difficulty in adapting to farm living conditions and work routines, it proved a worthwhile experiment in the reclamation of human resources through productive and wholesome agricultural tasks and supplemental services.

The number of youth placed through these 3 programs—about 9,000—was relatively small when compared with the regular services to youth provided by the public employment service system. During 1965, the Employment Service made 1,165,000 agricultural placements of workers under 22 (including many multiple placements of the same individual). However, the special youth programs helped pioneer new recruitment approaches that will be of increasing value in future operations. And all told, between 15,000 and *25,000 high school and college students had work* last summer which was previously performed by braceros.

Intensive efforts were also made to recruit more American Indians for farmwork. Representatives of the Employment Service and the Bureau of Indian Affairs assessed the potential labor supply on each reservation and mobile teams canvassed the reservations to recruit Indian workers interested in farm employment.

Recruitment of Puerto Rican workers was also expanded. Puerto Ricans have been coming to the mainland to do farmwork for many years, as individuals or under contract with employers supervised by the Puerto Rican Government. As a result of intensified efforts, some 17,400 were contracted for farmwork in 1965, compared with 14,700 in 1964.

Good progress was made in improving the utilization of local workers by means of new or expanded day-hauls and by the cooperation of growers in facilitating transfers of workers from com-

pleted activities to crops still needing labor. Expanded recruitment of interstate migratory workers was also undertaken, and training of workers under the MDTA to take over jobs formerly handled by foreigners was tested on a small scale.

EFFECTS OF REDUCED USE OF FOREIGN WORKERS

A rise in farm wage rates in areas formerly using foreign workers was one major result of the curtailment of their employment. This occurred as employers competed for domestic workers and as those requesting foreign labor conformed to the wage rates specified in the Secretary of Labor's regulations. Nationally, according to the Department of Agriculture, average wage rates for farmworkers who did not receive room or board from their employers rose from $1.08 to $1.14 between 1964 and 1965. This was the largest year-to-year increase since the Korean war.

Decreased use of foreign workers also expanded job opportunities for U.S. workers. As many as 100,000 took farm jobs in 1965 that were formerly held by foreign farmhands. In August, at the seasonal peak in farm employment, 86,000 more Americans were employed as seasonal farmworkers than a year earlier. The unemployment rate for agricultural laborers was 4.8 percent in August 1965, compared with 6.5 percent in the same month of 1964.

Man-months of employment of U.S. workers in crops and areas where foreign workers had been concentrated were 12 percent higher in 1965 than in 1964—an increase of nearly 250,000 man-months. The greatest gains were in citrus fruit, cucumbers, lettuce, melons, strawberries, sugarbeets, tobacco, and tomatoes.

Communities where U.S. workers replaced those from other countries benefited by increased expenditures in local stores. Formerly, a considerable part of the farm wages paid in such areas each year was sent out of the country. It is estimated that decreased use of foreign workers also helped to improve the Nation's international balance-of-payments situation by at least $50 million.

Most employers who had relied on foreign workers prior to the termination of Public Law 78 were able to adjust to the use of domestic manpower without undue difficulty. There was increased reliance on machines to harvest crops. And production methods were modified to make it possible to employ more women and youth.

Acreage of three or four crops in a few areas which formerly utilized large numbers of foreign workers was reduced during 1965, but there were indications that this reduction in some instances was attributable in part to market conditions rather than labor shortages. And the reduction was partly offset by higher acreage harvested in other areas. Altogether, the Nation had bumper harvests in 1965; even the claimed losses due to labor shortages amounted to only a tiny fraction of the value of the crops which utilized foreign labor in 1964.

The available evidence also suggests that increases in farm wages attributable to the termination of labor importation under Public Law 78 had only a marginal influence on the retail price of agricultural commodities. On the whole, the market prices of fruits and vegetables were lower in 1965 than in 1964, although the prices of most other commodities rose.

FUTURE PROSPECTS

The outlook is for continued reduction of foreign labor use, although labor shortage areas will remain in California, Florida, and a few other States. In California, increased mechanization of the tomato harvest and of several other labor-intensive activities will probably tend to limit major shortages to isolated emergency situations. More effective recruitment, higher wage rates for citrus work, and reduced sugarcane acreage indicate a need for fewer foreign workers in Florida.

The demand for foreign workers will be influenced by the wage rates and the quality and type of housing offered to domestic workers, and by transportation and related arrangements for them. The extent to which employment opportunities in nonagricultural industries continue to draw people from the farm will exert an important influence. The rate of advance of laborsaving technology on farms will be another important factor. Every effort will be made, however, to continue recent progress in limiting foreign worker use and in expanding opportunities for American workers on farms.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR FARM PEOPLE

Because of the reduction of job opportunities in farming, a majority of farm youth must prepare for unfamiliar jobs in nonfarm industries. Many adult farmworkers also require retraining for nonfarm employment. And even the workers who remain on the farm must learn new skills to keep abreast of agriculture's changing technology.

A major obstacle to effective vocational training of farm youth has been the inadequacy of training facilities in many rural areas. Despite the need to prepare many farm youngsters for nonfarm jobs, courses in agriculture have been predominant in the vocational curriculum of most rural schools. Only a minimum of training has been available in commercial, trades and industrial, and other nonfarm occupations.

With the resources provided by the Vocational Education Act of 1963, however, a major advance is possible toward meeting the vocational education needs of farm people. The occupations for which training may now be given with Federal assistance are more inclusive than those authorized in earlier programs, and geared more realistically to the needs of the job market. Agricultural courses, for example, may now include related occupations in production, processing, distribution, and service activities. The Office of Education has sponsored studies in some 30 States to determine new and emerging occupations related to agriculture for which such training may profitably be offered. Training may also be given for skilled and technical occupations required by expanding nonfarm industries.

Also authorized by the act are Federal funds for construction of area vocational-technical schools. This provision recognizes that small school units, operating on a limited tax base in many rural areas, cannot offer the varied curriculum or the quality of training needed. Large area schools will be in a position to offer to both rural and urban residents a broad and continuously updated spectrum of courses, using qualified instructors and modern equipment. During fiscal year 1965, 41 States utilized more than $55 million of their Federal allocations for the construction of 125 area schools. A survey has indicated the need for more than 1,000 additional vocational-technical area school facilities in the next 10 years.

Many youths in low-income farmworker families drop out of school permanently, or miss some schooling during busy agricultural seasons, while working to supplement family earnings. The provision of the 1963 act authorizing arrangements for part-time paid jobs for needy youngsters can thus be of real help to farm youth.[11]

The vocational training courses for adults served more than a half million rural people in fiscal year 1965—between one-fourth and one-fifth of all adults included in this program. Many adults, as well as farm youth, may thus be aided by the special vocational education programs tailored to the needs of persons with academic, socioeconomic, or other handicaps, provided for under the 1963 act.

An extensive program of research, experimental and demonstration projects, and increased teacher training are among the other important developments authorized by this act. People who live or work on farms will benefit from the new ideas and better information developed in the course of these activities.

TRAINING FOR THE UNEMPLOYED AND UNDEREMPLOYED

The training programs for unemployed and underemployed workers conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) can be of aid both to farmworkers who need to keep abreast of the changing skill demands of modern agriculture and to farm people who need to prepare for nonfarm occupations.

Special recognition is given in MDTA programs to the needs of small farm operators who are employed but have inadequate incomes. Members of farm families with less than $1,200 annual income are considered unemployed under the act and are therefore eligible for training allowances (provided they meet other requirements applying to all unemployed workers).

[11] See the chapter on Young Workers for a further discussion of this program.

By the end of 1965, training had been authorized for an estimated 100,000 farm and nonfarm workers in rural areas—about one-fourth of the total number of training approvals. One out of every eight of the rural trainees was past 45 and more than one-third were under 22. The large majority (7 out of 10) were men, who have been prepared chiefly for skilled or semiskilled blue-collar jobs. The women have been trained primarily for clerical, sales, and service jobs. (See chart 25.)

Only about 15,000 of the half million trainees authorized under the MDTA (and also the smaller Area Redevelopment Act training program) through September 30, 1965, were trained for agricultural work. This small group was made up primarily of unemployed or underemployed workers with farm backgrounds, for whom acquisition of advanced agricultural skills offered the best hope of satisfactory employment. Three out of five of these trainees had never progressed beyond the eighth grade. The proportion aged 45 or over was exceptionally high—nearly 30 percent—and only 17 percent were youth under 22. One-fourth of these trainees were nonwhite. Most had very low earnings in their last regular employment or had never had any regular employment at all.

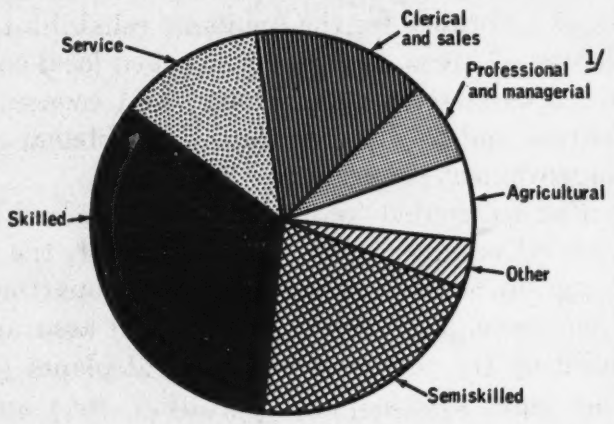
The types of agricultural occupations for which these trainees have been equipped reflect current job trends in agriculture. Over half (55 percent) have been trained for relatively skilled agricultural jobs, such as farm equipment operator, dairyman, foreman, and tree pruner. Approximately one-fourth have been small farm operators learning to improve their own farm operations.

Another fifth of the trainees enrolled in agricultural courses have been equipped for occupations generally found in an urban or nonfarm setting. These jobs include nursery attendants, park caretakers, and gardeners. Demand in these occupations is rising and offers opportunities for people with farm backgrounds to make a gradual transition to off-farm work.

Much remains to be done, however, in adapting the MDTA training program to the needs of farmworkers, within the limits of budgetary resources. Training for migratory workers, small tenant farmers, and other groups with special problems in the agricultural job market has been limited to date, and attention is being given to strengthening the MDTA program in this area.

Chart 25 **Most MDTA enrollees in rural areas take training for nonfarm occupations.**

Percent of MDTA trainees in rural areas trained for specified occupations, fiscal year 1965



1/ Training in professional occupations under the MDTA is limited to refresher training, designed to provide, for example, the updating of knowledge and techniques which professional nurses may need to reenter employment.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor.

Experimental and Demonstration Projects

A number of experimental and demonstration (E&D) projects conducted under the MDTA have also focused on rural manpower problems. These have been sponsored by land grant colleges, church groups such as the Migrant Ministry of the National Council of Churches, and other private or public organizations. The emphasis has been on developing new ways of reaching and gaining the confidence of disadvantaged farm people, of teaching needed skills, and of overcoming cultural obstacles to steady employment of the individuals involved. Intensive job development efforts have been made also.

The shift from farm to nonfarm work often involves a much more complex adjustment than the mere acquisition of new vocational skills. It may require a change from outdoor to indoor activity, from physical labor to sedentary work, or from

work with heavy tools to the use of delicate instruments, as well as a shift from rural to urban life.

Where farm people have been trained for nonfarm jobs, particularly away from their home area, E&D projects have found that the skill training often must be accompanied by other services in order to achieve effective preparation for urban work. These services may include intensive counseling, training in hygiene or proper food habits, preparation for social demands of an industrial workplace and community, individual tutoring, and remedial education. For migratory farmworkers, it has been found useful to provide housing for entire family groups near the training site, to help with transportation arrangements, and to arrange for a flexible training schedule adapted to variations in seasonal labor requirements.

Mobility Demonstration Projects

Labor mobility demonstration projects, also conducted under the MDTA, permit a start toward testing and demonstrating ways of assisting underemployed farm people who must move away from home in order to find suitable employment. In the past, the unguided migration of millions of farmworkers into nonfarm areas has often led to personal hardship rather than significant economic upgrading, to increases in urban unemployment rather than filling of vacant jobs, and to strain on community facilities rather than enrichment of local resources.

The first MDTA relocation projects included several to help small numbers of farm people move to urban or rural areas with labor shortages. The numbers of workers involved are as yet too small to offer any firm conclusions, but some of the tentative initial findings are promising.

One finding has been that specific relocation assistance can induce some hitherto immobile unemployed workers to move to take a job elsewhere. Experience on the initial projects also indicates that job-finding and other assistance can guide workers to areas with job openings and can reduce the economic and other problems of adjustment to a new area.

The initial projects have indicated, however, that training to provide needed skills is often a prerequisite for effective relocation. There is strong evidence also that, for many who do relocate, a series of supportive services is necessary to help prepare for the move and to aid in settling-in and meeting unanticipated problems in an unfamiliar urban setting. Housing and transportation difficulties are a particular threat to the effectiveness of many relocation efforts unless special assistance is provided.

Additional mobility demonstration projects for rural workers are now in progress in several regions of the country, and are experimenting with varied degrees and forms of financial, preparatory, and settling-in assistance. They should provide a factual basis for enlarged efforts to facilitate the relocation of jobless or underemployed farmworkers and to ease the problems involved for the workers, their families, and the communities to which they go.

PROGRAMS TO EXPAND JOB OPPORTUNITIES

The economic development programs of recent years have aimed to create new labor demands in areas of low income or persistent unemployment or underemployment—rural and urban alike. The purpose has been to enable people to earn a decent living in their home community. Farm areas, with their decreasing employment and heavy out-migration, have been among the major beneficiaries of these programs.

Area and Regional Development

The Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 (ARA) was a pioneering effort to provide Federal Government assistance for the economic rehabilitation of depressed areas. It also encouraged local communities to analyze their human and economic resources and to develop plans for systematic self-improvement programs.

For designated "redevelopment areas" with substantial and persistent unemployment, the ARA program, administered by the U.S. Department of Commerce, made available financial assistance to build up the communities' physical plants (sewer and water systems, transportation, etc.) and authorized loans for industrial expansion. In rural areas, new industries and the employment and cash income they provided were expected to cut down the rate of out-migration and help farm families break through the poverty cycle. The ARA also

provided short-term occupational training for unemployed and underemployed workers, under which several thousand farmworkers were equipped with marketable job skills.

The program benefited many enterprises in industries such as wood products, food processing, and recreation services, which draw much of their work force from nearby farms and small communities. Many other industries—including machinery, apparel, chemicals, transportation, and trade—were also heavily represented among those given incentives to set up establishments in rural areas or small communities. Altogether, of the $322 million spent under the ARA program for all types of economic assistance, $168.9 million—slightly over half—went to assist rural areas.

The economic development program established by the Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965 draws heavily on experience under the ARA. But some new approaches and shifts of emphasis are expected to increase the effectiveness of Federal assistance for economic development.

The Congress authorized $3.25 billion to be used for economic development programs conducted under this act over a 5-year period. Of this total, $2.0 billion would be for public works grants to help depressed areas improve their physical plants (sewer and water systems, access roads, and other public facilities) when needed to stimulate economic expansion and create additional long-term job opportunities. The new act also provides for business loans and for expanded technical assistance and research programs—all designed to promote industrial development and create jobs.

Not only is the new program more adequately financed than the ARA program but also two new features—multicounty districts and multistate regional planning commissions—should benefit rural areas. The economic development program retains the redevelopment area as the basic unit for financial aid. But two or more such areas may be combined into a "district" so that programs of broader geographical scope may be planned and carried out. Starting in fiscal year 1967, special financial assistance will be given to economic development "centers" identified in the programs of these districts. These centers are communities of not more than 250,000, geographically and economically related to the district. They must have a growth potential, so that special programs for district cooperation, self-help, and public investment may be developed.

Experience has shown that economic development in urban centers which have the industries, facilities, and services required to attract and accommodate growth will benefit nearby depressed rural areas which, by themselves, could not hope to generate or attract new job opportunities. Unemployed or underemployed rural people will be able to commute to new jobs in the nearest economic development center. Construction and improvement of roads may facilitate such commuting.

Designation of multistate regions and establishment of regional planning commissions is authorized by the new act for groups of States which are related geographically, culturally, historically, and economically and which have lagged behind the Nation in economic development. As with districts, the regional concept provides for a broader, more realistic and flexible approach to the economic problems of depressed farming areas, urban communities, and their people.

Rural Areas Development Program

The Rural Areas Development (RAD) program of the Department of Agriculture helps to alleviate manpower problems in rural areas through community and human resources development and the stimulation of new job opportunities. An important approach has been to aid in the formation of representative local development groups, to assist them in evaluating area needs and planning improvements, and to mobilize government resources in a coordinated effort to achieve these goals.

At the county level, the extension staff and other specialists, working in conjunction with Technical Action Panels [12] of the Department of Agriculture, help the local development organization to plan RAD projects. These have a variety of related objectives—expanding job opportunities, providing job training, creating new industries, developing recreation enterprises, adjusting land-use patterns, preserving and improving family

[12] The Department of Agriculture agencies that operate offices in rural counties form Technical Action Panels (TAP's) in each rural county, as well as in each State. The TAP comprises the top-ranking official of each of the Department of Agriculture agencies in the field, principally the Farmers Home Administration, the Soil Conservation Service, the Forest Service, and the Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation Service. State and local agencies which cooperate with other Department of Agriculture agencies such as the Extension Service and State conservation or forestry departments, also serve on the TAP.

farms, improving community facilities (water and sewer systems, hospitals, training centers), and aiding in the elimination of rural poverty.

A Cabinet-level Rural Development Committee, with the Secretary of Agriculture as Chairman, was established by President Kennedy in November 1963, to provide a closer working relationship among all Federal agencies with activities pertinent to the development of rural areas. A Rural Community Development Service (RCDS) was also set up in early 1965 by the Secretary of Agriculture to provide further stimulation and coordination of services.

With added resources provided in the 1966 budget, the RCDS is undertaking a new outreach approach, under which it will work with other Federal agencies to assure that rural people have full access to needed services. Field staff of the Department of Agriculture will help rural residents make effective use of government services, while the RCDS Washington and State staff will followup and expedite the processing by other agencies of applications and projects from rural communities. For more comprehensive solutions to the problems of rural communities, RCDS and other agencies will develop plans for "packages" of programs combining services of various Government agencies.

A number of important steps have already been taken toward further economic development, job creation, and better utilization of manpower in farming areas. Under the pilot Rural Renewal Program and other programs of the Department of Agriculture, loans and grants have been made for studying and improving land utilization and other resources. Public information programs have been expanded, including workshops to inform rural leaders about existing services, encouragement of broader representation in community development organizations, and efforts to make government services more readily available to disadvantaged people. Rural communities have been helped to plan and conduct economic development and training programs. Research, technical, and financial assistance has been provided for developing recreation industries in rural areas. The Farmers Home Administration has maintained an extensive program of loans for improving rural housing and community facilities and for encouraging farm ownership. And rural cooperatives have been aided in enlarging farm employment and income potentials.

The results have demonstrated that local people, when given technical and financial assistance, can mount an effective attack on the economic and social problems of their rural communities.

WAR ON POVERTY PROGRAMS

The problem of poverty in the United States stems in large part from the poverty of farmers and farmworkers. The proportion of families with incomes below the threshold of poverty is twice as high among those headed by farm operators as among all families in the population, and is much higher still among families headed by hired farmworkers. And although most farm people have made good adjustments when they have moved into nonfarm jobs and urban areas, movement of uneducated, unskilled workers from farms has added to unemployment and poverty in city slums.

For this reason, several War on Poverty programs are aimed specifically at the needs of the rural poor. And many farm people are benefiting directly or indirectly from other programs.

Youth Programs

The Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) has made special efforts to include rural youth in its work-experience programs for disadvantaged young people aged 16 to 21.[13] During 1965, more than 1,400 NYC projects were in operation; they provided work opportunities for approximately 500,000 individual youth. Rural projects represented over a third of all projects and accounted for a fourth of the enrollees.

Recruitment of rural in-school youth was found to present no particular problem, but recruitment of out-of-school youth was difficult because of the dispersed population and, in many instances, the absence of a central community organization. In addition to the regular efforts of NYC field staff to reach these youth, statewide NYC projects were implemented through the cooperation of the Department of Agriculture and its field offices.

Work performed by NYC enrollees in rural projects included assignments in schools and other

[13] See the chapter on Young Workers for a further discussion of the Neighborhood Youth Corps and other youth programs mentioned here.

public buildings, in State forests and parks, and on highway projects. During the summer, many NYC enrollees did a variety of jobs which furthered the President's Beautification Program. These included planting trees and shrubs along highways, cleaning debris in forests, developing picnic and recreation facilities, and developing and improving scenic overlooks.

The NYC program has been especially helpful to youth in rural areas, enabling many to earn needed income to remain in or return to school. For others it has provided useful work experience and offered assistance in planning realistically for their future. The rural communities have benefited because the wages earned by the youth increased family income, thereby improving the general economic situation.

Some jobless farm youth are enrolled in the Job Corps. This residential work-training program is of special value for those from underprivileged homes who need a change of environment in order to benefit from training. The adjustment of rural youth is facilitated by assignment to rural conservation camps as a transitional step before entering intensive vocational training.

Farm youth qualified for higher education also benefit from the work-study program authorized by the Economic Opportunity Act. This provides part-time work to help needy students complete their college education.

Assistance to Migrants and Other Seasonal Farmworkers

Migrants and other seasonal farmworkers are now being helped by projects conducted by State and local governments and private nonprofit agencies, with financial aid under the Economic Opportunity Act. These projects are aimed at providing and improving housing, sanitation, education, and programs for child care. They are aiding migrant farmworkers in their home base areas in Texas, California, other Southwestern States, and in Florida, and in many areas where they do seasonal farmwork. Projects have also been undertaken to serve seasonal farmworkers who do not migrate. By December 31, 1965, an estimated 150,000 workers and their dependents had been served in 27 States.

Emphasis has been placed on projects which are aimed at longrun solutions to the problems of farmworkers, enlist the support and self-help efforts of the workers themselves, and also help to mobilize local community services. Among the types of projects which have been conducted are:

—Self-help housing and housing improvement programs.

—Accelerated school programs to shorten the school year for children of migrants.

—Enrichment of school programs and remedial summer school work for youth.

—Adult education programs—with stipends for full-time, offseason participation—including literacy training and other basic education, and instruction in the rights and responsibilities of citizenship, credit management, consumer education, homemaking, prevocational orientation, and leadership.

—Vocational training programs for adults.

—Experiments with demountable housing units for migratory workers.

—Day-care centers for preschool children.

—Extension of library services to migratory children.

—Rest-stop facilities along routes heavily traveled by migrant families.

Community Action Programs in Rural Areas

Since the causes and problems of poverty in rural areas are complex, solutions require many different approaches and depend to a large extent on the efforts and resources of the rural community itself. For these reasons, the coordinated approach to community problems envisaged in the Community Action Program (CAP) is particularly valuable in helping to meet the needs of poor individuals and families in rural areas.[14]

Of the total of $313.6 million approved for local use in carrying out Community Action Projects through 1965, $56.8 million (18 percent) has gone to farm and rural nonfarm areas. These funds are supporting the efforts of some 320 community action agencies working in 650 rural counties.

In rural projects, emphasis is on multicounty organization, and the agencies coordinating the programs must include representatives of farmers,

[14] See the chapter on Unused Manpower Resources and Their Development for a further discussion of this program.

farmworkers, and other rural people. Services provided include assistance in obtaining employment, training, and counseling; health and vocational rehabilitation services; housing and home management programs; welfare services; and remedial education. Stress is on the long-term unemployed, the underemployed, minority group workers, older workers, migratory laborers, and others at a special disadvantage in the job market. Low-income communities which have been stalemated in economic and population growth also can benefit from the community action approach.

Rural CAP's encounter many problems not met in urban communities. Since most people in rural areas have relatively little experience with Federal Government programs other than those of agricultural agencies, they require considerable technical assistance. They often need help in forming representative local organizations, reviewing area needs, developing and proposing projects to raise community employment and income levels, and conducting self-help programs. In some areas, problems of race relations, poor communication, and lack of technically trained people are additional obstacles to effective organization and action.

These are pervasive problems, and solutions are not easy to achieve. Technical assistance and training, patiently and persistently provided, have proved the most fruitful means of getting good intentions to materialize into community programs.

An illustrative case history of how CAP's are actually used to help farm people can be drawn from a Southeastern State. In a county where average family income is very low and tobacco has been the only crop, the CAP has helped a group of 70 farmers to form a cooperative to grow and market strawberries. A CAP-employed agronomist teaches strawberry culture and has assisted the co-op members in applying for a Farmers Home Administration loan to construct a processing plant for the berries. Many of the members have also received individual FHA loans so that they can join the co-op and buy necessary materials.

The local community action organization is in the process of negotiating a loan from the Small Business Administration to begin a cooperative for contract sewing work. Matching funds have been raised in the community for this program, which will provide 60 jobs with a monthly payroll of $40,000. It is anticipated that employment will eventually total 150.

Credit for Rural Businessmen

Poor rural families and rural cooperatives have access to a new source of credit, provided by the Economic Opportunity Act with the condition that this assistance may not supplant that available from other sources. These loans increase the productivity of farmers and other small businessmen who, for lack of capital, are producing much less than their potential.

Loans to farmers are made to enable them to buy real estate or improve the operation and financial stability of family farms. By the end of 1965, some $16 million had been loaned to about 9,500 farm families, out of a total of some $27 million loaned to all rural families. (See table 27.)

TABLE 27. LOANS TO RURAL ENTERPRISES UNDER THE ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY ACT, THROUGH DECEMBER 31, 1965

Type of loan	Number of loans	Amount (millions)
Total	16,257	$30.4
Individual economic opportunity loans	16,019	27.3
Agricultural [1]	9,494	15.9
Nonagricultural	6,525	11.4
Loans to economic cooperatives	238	3.1

[1] Loans to farmers for both agricultural and nonagricultural purposes are included in agricultural.

Loans to rural economic cooperatives—primarily farmer cooperatives—provide their members with new income opportunities. They have, for example, helped small farmers to buy machinery that none of them could afford alone. Some $3 million had been loaned to 238 cooperatives by the end of 1965.

The demand for both individual loans and loans to cooperatives under this program greatly exceeds available resources.

Other Educational and Training Opportunities

Relatively low educational attainment among hired farmworkers and farm operators, particularly the older adults, can be ameliorated by the Adult Basic Education Program, also established by the Economic Opportunity Act. This program teaches people aged 18 or over to read and write, gives them remedial education in arithmetic and other basic subjects, and thus helps them qualify for better jobs or for occupational training courses.

The Work-Experience Program for people on public assistance is another War on Poverty program which can be of special benefit to seasonal farmworkers who are supported by public assistance part of the year.[15]

Conclusions and Recommendations

The special message on rural poverty transmitted by the President to the Congress on January 25, 1966, makes plain the need for greatly strengthened economic and human resources development programs for rural farm and nonfarm people. Significant progress has been made under recent government programs in helping farmworkers and their families adjust to agriculture's changing manpower requirements. But there are still major gaps in the services needed to aid workers in this adjustment, and also to assist both rural and urban communities in dealing with the attendant social and economic problems. The following steps to improve programs and strengthen services deserve urgent consideration.

EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Basic to any longrun solution of agricultural manpower problems is the strengthening of rural education and training resources. As emphasized earlier in this chapter, educational opportunities in farm areas have been greatly deficient as compared to those in urban communities—with inevitable consequences in the limited educational attainment of farm people.

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 [16] provides a new opportunity for reducing the handicaps in schooling imposed on rural youth. More diversified vocational training for rural youth has also been made possible by the Vocational Education Act of 1963. Planning of the new area vocational-technical schools financed by the 1963 act should give special emphasis to means for effectively equipping farm and nonfarm youngsters with the skills they need to compete for the increasingly complex jobs of both agricultural and nonagricultural industries.

In economic and manpower development in rural areas, the training provided farmers and other rural people by the Cooperative Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture should have a key role. The service, through cooperative relationships with Federal, State and local government agencies and land grant universities, gives instruction in four major fields—agricultural business, youth programs, home economics, and community and resource development. A substantial number of low-income people are and should be included in the group served.

The beginnings made under the MDTA in occupational training of unemployed farmworkers should also be continued and expanded. Further experimentation should be undertaken in the training of migratory farm laborers, small farmers, and other farm people facing especially difficult problems in the changing agricultural economy. Preparation of displaced farmworkers for nonfarm occupations in which there is demand for additional manpower should be emphasized.

Opportunities for apprenticeships in skilled trades are now very limited in rural areas. Possible mechanisms for opening apprenticeships to qualified rural youth and, if necessary, helping these youth to move where the openings exist should be considered by Government and private agencies responsible for promoting apprenticeship programs and for planning economic development programs.

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[15] See the chapter on Unused Manpower Resources and Their Development for a discussion of this program.

[16] See the chapter on Young Workers for a further discussion of this act.

ECONOMIC AND JOB DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL AREAS

Progress in economic development of rural areas, or of community development districts composed of associated rural and urban areas, offers a means of ameliorating agricultural manpower problems. Additional job opportunities developed locally in nonfarm industries help to offset the continuing decline in agricultural employment and to reduce the economic pressure on farm people to move to cities.

Job development programs in rural areas should emphasize the needs of the three-fifths of the Nation's farmers aged 45 or over. Small farmers in this age group, many of whom have substandard incomes, face special difficulties in making a successful shift to nonfarm employment, and it is not realistic to think that a high proportion of them will migrate to urban areas.

To insure that rural communities have full access to Federally assisted manpower and antipoverty programs, the Federal Government should, in cooperation with State agencies, provide intensive technical assistance and adequate funds for planning and development activities. These steps will stimulate the emergence of expert leadership and effective development organizations in rural areas. In this connection, expansion of the work of the Department of Agriculture's Rural Communities Development Service should be facilitated.

Better coordination of activities under the various agricultural and manpower programs should also be sought. To take an obvious example, programs to develop new jobs in rural areas should be accompanied by programs to train the manpower needed to fill these jobs.

A pilot program undertaken recently at the recommendation of the Rural Area Development Committee can point the way to effective mobilization and coordination of government services in agricultural areas. This pilot program, termed Concerted Services in Training and Education, is demonstrating how the resources of Federal, State, and local government agencies can be combined to help solve difficult unemployment, education, housing, health, and welfare problems in rural areas with high unemployment and low-income levels. If the program is successful, its procedures should be extended to other rural areas with acute problems.

REGULARIZATION OF EMPLOYMENT FOR FARMWORKERS

There is an urgent need for new measures to rationalize the job market for seasonal farmworkers and provide them more regular employment. Such measures are essential to reduce unemployment among hired farmworkers and to attack the roots of their economic and social problems. They will also benefit farm employers by building a skilled and productive work force and helping to meet their labor needs in a reliable and systematic way.

The Department of Labor's Annual Worker Plan (described earlier in this chapter), should be extended to cover all States using significant numbers of migratory farmworkers. Attention should be focused also on developing new mechanisms to provide year-round employment, such as (a) incentives for farm employers to work together in providing year-round employment by the systematic transfer of employees among seasonal farm jobs; (b) government assistance in recruiting, sheltering, assigning, and transporting temporary farmhands; and (c) ways of helping rural communities develop nonfarm work opportunities timed to fill the gaps between peak agricultural seasons.

FURTHER REDUCTION OF FOREIGN LABOR AND INTENSIFIED RECRUITMENT PROGRAMS

Dramatic success in cutting back the employment of foreign workers on U.S. farms during 1965 should be followed up in 1966 and subsequent years. Use of foreign workers should be limited to only a relatively small number of severe labor shortage situations in which employers who offer adequate wages and working conditions and who engage in intensive recruitment programs have nonetheless been unable to attract a domestic work force.

Experience gained in intensifying domestic worker recruitment programs to replace foreign labor in 1965 should be utilized to improve such programs in coming seasons. Evaluation of 1965 recruitment activities plainly indicates the need to:

—Plan and initiate recruitment programs well in advance of the agricultural season.

—Arrange close cooperation and exchanges of

information between employers and government recruitment agencies.

—Develop and apply systematic procedures for selecting farmworkers, particularly among youth and among people who never before engaged in hired farmwork.

—Administer systematic training to inexperienced workers.

—Provide housing adapted to the need of the particular types of families or individuals to be recruited.

—Train and orient farm labor supervisors.

—Provide adequate wage incentives.

Successful programs to recruit domestic farmworkers must be based on accurate information about manpower requirements and the number and characteristics of potential workers. Continuous improvement of the sources and analysis of this information should be emphasized by the Federal, State, and local agencies concerned with farm labor recruitment.

LABOR STANDARDS AND INCOME SECURITY FOR FARMWORKERS

Of all major groups in the labor force, farmworkers have been accorded the least protection under labor standards and social insurance legislation. They are excluded from the wage and hour provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act and from most State minimum wage laws. Their right to organize and bargain collectively is not protected under the Labor Management Relations Act, nor under most State labor relations laws. They are also excluded from unemployment insurance and workmen's compensation in most States, though their low incomes, intermittent employment, and often hazardous work create a substantial need for such protection.

The national objective should be to achieve for farmworkers the kind of protection which has come to be accepted for nonfarm manpower. More specifically:

1. Unemployment insurance should be extended to farm wage workers, beginning with those on larger farms. According to 1963 estimates, coverage of workers employed on farms using 300 or more man-days of hired farm labor in a calendar quarter would affect little more than 2 percent of all farms, but these establishments accounted for almost two-thirds of all man-days of farm labor. Consideration should also be given to coverage for the approximately 200,000 currently excluded workers engaged in agricultural processing.

2. Further consideration should be given to ways of improving the protection of farmworkers under the Old Age, Survivors, and Disability Insurance program (OASDI). Experience in covering farmworkers under OASDI, including the extent to which migratory labor crew leaders are meeting their responsibilities for deducting, matching, and forwarding OASDI payroll taxes, should be carefully reviewed to strengthen the effectiveness of the law.

3. Protection of farmworkers under State workmen's compensation laws is another subject which should receive active consideration.

4. Careful consideration should be given to the need for amending the Fair Labor Standards Act to provide minimum wage protection for farmworkers and to prohibit the hiring of young children in agriculture outside of school hours. (At present, a child of any age can do wage work in agriculture, no matter how hazardous, outside of school hours.)

5. Consideration should also be given to legislation for protecting the rights of farmworkers to form and join unions and to bargain collectively with their employers.

6. The problems involved in public assistance for people who engage in seasonal farmwork also need intensive study. It is important to insure, for example, that workers on public assistance are not deterred from accepting seasonal farm jobs by the difficulty of qualifying for assistance again at the end of the season; also that those who engage in seasonal farmwork continue to be eligible for training, health care, and other supplemental services essential to a long-range solution to their problems. Possible modification of State residence requirements which may bar migratory workers from greatly needed aid is another problem warranting careful study. It is recommended that these and related problems regarding assistance to farmworkers be considered by the present Task Force on Public Assistance of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

FARMWORKER HOUSING

The housing of migratory and other seasonal farmworkers presents serious problems. Lack of adequate housing has made it difficult to recruit qualified domestic farmworkers, has created significant health and safety hazards, and has impaired living standards for many farmworker families. Prompt attention should be given to approaches for assisting farm operators, local governments, and community organizations to provide comfortable and sanitary quarters, with emphasis on family-type dwellings adapted to the needs of migratory farmworkers. Resources of existing Federal programs for aiding farm labor housing should be fully utilized and expanded. Federal agencies concerned with farm labor should encourage State and local governments to tighten and enforce farm labor housing codes. Experimentation with building techniques, arrangements, and financing should be intensified to develop new ways of meeting short-term housing needs effectively.

MIGRATION FROM FARM TO NONFARM AREAS

The migration of farm people to urban areas will continue to be substantial for some time. Attention should be given, therefore, to ways to reduce haphazard, ill-directed migration and aid the adjustment of migrants in the cities receiving them.

Counseling services need to be expanded in rural schools, in order to inform youth better about urban employment opportunities and the preparation these require, and to aid them in evaluating their own aptitudes and interests.

The availability of public employment services in rural areas should be greatly increased. The aim should be to give potential migrants information on job opportunities elsewhere and on housing and other conditions at their destinations and also to help them make advance job arrangements.

The labor mobility demonstration projects authorized by the MDTA provide a means of exploring the problems faced by farmworkers in moving to nonfarm jobs and communities and the ways in which these problems can be alleviated. Projects involving rural people should continue to be emphasized in this pilot program.

RESEARCH AND PLANNING

New resources for research and experimental projects made available under the Manpower Development and Training Act, the Economic Opportunity Act, and other legislation provide an opportunity to expand our knowledge of agriculture's human resources. Study of the characteristics and problems of farm people can help to develop effective programs tailored to their special needs. Of particular importance is the need to anticipate technological change in agriculture, so that manpower programs can be planned in advance to aid workers likely to be affected by such change. More research is needed also on such subjects as the needs and experience of out-migrants, the problems of older farm operators, the career choices of farm youth, and ways to meet the critical housing needs of migratory farmworkers and their families.

Noteworthy progress toward a comprehensive review of agriculture policies and needs and the development of forward-looking programs was made recently through the appointment by the President of two new Commissions. The National Advisory Commission on Food and Fiber [17] will make an intensive review of the fundamental problems and policies of agriculture and current economic trends, including productivity, costs, prices, income, farm employment, labor standards, and related matters. The Commission is to submit recommendations by mid-1967. The second Commission was announced in the President's special message to the Congress in January 1966. Termed the Commission on Rural Poverty, it is scheduled to make recommendations to the President, within one year of its appointment, covering means of eradicating rural poverty.

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[17] Created by Executive Order 11256, November 4, 1965.

STATISTICAL APPENDIX

The U.S. Department of Labor is the source of all data in this report unless otherwise specified. (Prior to July 1959 the data shown in sections A and B were published by the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.) Information on concepts, methodology, etc., will be found in the appropriate publications of the Department, particularly *Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report on the Labor Force* of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and publications of the Bureau of Employment Security. For those series based on samples, attention is invited to the estimates of sampling variability and sample coverage published in *Employment and Earnings and Monthly Report on the Labor Force.*

For those tables in section A showing employment and unemployment by age, sex, and color, data prior to 1957 have been adjusted for the changes in concepts and definitions adopted in January 1957. (See headnote preceding table A–1.)

Most time series are shown from the first year for which continuous or relatively continuous data are available, beginning with 1947.

Alaska and Hawaii are included unless otherwise noted.

Individual items in the tables may not add to totals because of rounding.

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NOTE: Comparable data for employment and unemployment by age, sex, and color for years prior to 1957 have been provided for the changes in concepts and definitions adopted in January 1957. Two groups averaging about 250,000 workers who were formerly classified as employed (with a job but not at work)—those on tempory layoff and those waiting to start new wage and salary jobs within 30 days—were assigned to different classifications, mostly to the unemployed. The changes mainly affected the total for nonagricultural wage and salary workers, which was reduced by about 0.5 percent; there was little impact on any individual category in the group.

Table A–1. Employment Status of the Noninstitutional Population, by Sex: Annual Averages, 1947–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over; numbers in thousands]

Sex and year	Total noninstitutional population	Total labor force, including Armed Forces		Civilian labor force						Not in labor force
		Number	Percent of noninstitutional population	Total	Employed			Unemployed		
					Total	Agriculture	Nonagricultural industries	Number	Percent of labor force	
BOTH SEXES										
1947	107,608	61,758	57.4	60,168	57,812	8,256	49,557	2,356	3.9	45,850
1948	108,632	62,898	57.9	61,442	59,117	7,960	51,156	2,325	3.8	45,733
1949	109,773	63,721	58.0	62,105	58,423	8,017	50,406	3,682	5.9	46,051
1950	110,929	64,749	58.4	63,099	59,748	7,497	52,251	3,351	5.3	46,181
1951	112,075	65,983	58.9	62,884	60,784	7,048	53,736	2,099	3.3	46,092
1952	113,270	66,560	58.8	62,966	61,035	6,792	54,243	1,932	3.1	46,710
1953 [1]	115,094	67,362	58.5	63,815	61,945	6,555	55,390	1,870	2.9	47,732
1954	116,219	67,818	58.4	64,468	60,890	6,495	54,395	3,578	5.6	48,401
1955	117,388	68,896	58.7	65,848	62,944	6,718	56,225	2,904	4.4	48,492
1956	118,734	70,387	59.3	67,530	64,708	6,572	58,135	2,822	4.2	48,348
1957	120,445	70,746	58.7	67,946	65,011	6,222	58,789	2,936	4.3	49,699
1958	121,950	71,284	58.5	68,647	63,966	5,844	58,122	4,681	6.8	50,666
1959	123,366	71,946	58.3	69,394	65,581	5,836	59,745	3,813	5.5	51,420
1960 [1]	125,368	73,126	58.3	70,612	66,681	5,723	60,958	3,931	5.6	52,242
1961	127,852	74,175	58.0	71,603	66,796	5,463	61,333	4,806	6.7	53,677
1962 [1]	130,081	74,681	57.4	71,854	67,846	5,190	62,657	4,007	5.6	55,400
1963	132,124	75,712	57.3	72,975	68,809	4,946	63,863	4,166	5.7	56,412
1964	134,143	76,971	57.4	74,233	70,357	4,761	65,596	3,876	5.2	57,172
1965	136,241	78,357	57.5	75,635	72,179	4,585	67,594	3,456	4.6	57,884
MALE										
1947	53,085	44,844	84.5	43,272	41,552	6,947	34,605	1,720	4.0	8,242
1948	53,513	45,300	84.7	43,858	42,268	6,623	35,645	1,590	3.6	8,213
1949	54,028	45,674	84.5	44,075	41,473	6,629	34,844	2,602	5.9	8,354
1950	54,526	46,069	84.5	44,442	42,162	6,271	35,891	2,280	5.1	8,457
1951	54,996	46,674	84.9	43,612	42,362	5,791	36,571	1,250	2.9	8,322
1952	55,503	47,001	84.7	43,454	42,237	5,623	36,614	1,217	2.8	8,502
1953 [1]	56,534	47,692	84.4	44,194	42,966	5,496	37,470	1,228	2.8	8,840
1954	57,016	47,847	83.9	44,537	42,165	5,429	36,736	2,372	5.3	9,169
1955	57,484	48,054	83.6	45,041	43,152	5,479	37,673	1,889	4.2	9,430
1956	58,044	48,579	83.7	45,756	43,999	5,268	38,731	1,757	3.8	9,465
1957	58,813	48,649	82.7	45,882	43,990	5,037	38,952	1,893	4.1	10,164
1958	59,478	48,802	82.1	46,197	43,042	4,802	38,240	3,155	6.8	10,677
1959	60,100	49,081	81.7	46,562	44,089	4,749	39,340	2,473	5.3	11,019
1960 [1]	61,000	49,507	81.2	47,025	44,495	4,678	39,807	2,541	5.4	11,493
1961	62,147	49,918	80.3	47,378	44,318	4,508	39,811	3,060	6.5	12,229
1962 [1]	63,234	50,175	79.3	47,380	44,892	4,266	40,626	2,488	5.3	13,059
1963	64,163	50,573	78.8	47,867	45,330	4,021	41,309	2,537	5.3	13,590
1964	65,065	51,118	78.6	48,410	46,139	3,884	42,255	2,271	4.7	13,947
1965	66,027	51,705	78.3	49,014	47,034	3,729	43,304	1,980	4.0	14,322
FEMALE										
1947	54,523	16,915	31.0	16,896	16,259	1,309	14,951	637	3.8	37,608
1948	55,118	17,599	31.9	17,853	16,848	1,338	15,510	735	4.1	37,520
1949	55,745	18,048	32.4	18,030	16,947	1,386	15,561	1,083	6.0	37,697
1950	56,404	18,680	33.1	18,657	17,584	1,226	16,358	1,073	5.8	37,724
1951	57,078	19,309	33.8	19,272	18,421	1,257	17,164	851	4.4	37,770
1952	57,766	19,558	33.9	19,513	18,798	1,170	17,628	715	3.7	38,208
1953 [1]	58,561	19,668	33.6	19,621	18,979	1,061	17,918	642	3.3	38,893
1954	59,203	19,971	33.7	19,931	18,724	1,067	17,657	1,207	6.1	39,232
1955	59,904	20,842	34.8	20,806	19,790	1,239	18,551	1,016	4.9	39,062
1956	60,690	21,808	35.9	21,774	20,707	1,306	19,401	1,067	4.9	38,883
1957	61,632	22,097	35.9	22,064	21,021	1,184	19,837	1,043	4.7	39,535
1958	62,472	22,482	36.0	22,451	20,924	1,042	19,882	1,526	6.8	39,990
1959	63,265	22,865	36.1	22,832	21,492	1,087	20,405	1,340	5.9	40,401
1960 [1]	64,368	23,619	36.7	23,587	22,196	1,045	21,151	1,390	5.9	40,749
1961	65,705	24,257	36.9	24,225	22,478	955	21,523	1,747	7.2	41,448
1962 [1]	66,848	24,507	36.7	24,474	22,954	924	22,031	1,519	6.2	42,341
1963	67,962	25,141	37.0	25,109	23,479	925	22,554	1,629	6.5	42,822
1964	69,079	25,854	37.4	25,823	24,218	877	23,341	1,605	6.2	43,225
1965	70,215	26,653	38.0	26,621	25,145	856	24,289	1,476	5.5	43,562

[1] Not strictly comparable with prior years. The introduction of data from the decennial censuses into the estimation procedure in 1953 and 1962, and the inclusion of Alaska and Hawaii in 1960, have resulted in three periods of noncomparability: (*a*) Beginning 1953, as a result of the 1950 census, population levels were raised by about 600,000; labor force, total employment, and agricultural employment by about 350,000, primarily affecting the figures for totals and males; other categories were relatively unaffected; (*b*) beginning 1960, the inclusion of Alaska and Hawaii resulted in an increase of about 500,000 in the population and about 300,000 in the labor force, four-fifths of this in nonagricultural employment; other labor force categories were not appreciably affected; (*c*) beginning 1962, the introduction of figures from the 1960 census reduced the population by about 50,000, labor force and employment by about 200,000; unemployment totals were virtually unchanged.

Table A–2. Total Labor Force (Including Armed Forces) and Labor Force Participation Rates,[1] by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–65

Sex and year	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years				20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
		Total	14 and 15	16 and 17	18 and 19						
	Number in total labor force (thousands)										
MALE											
1947	44,844	3,640	586	1,169	1,884	5,094	10,598	9,603	7,882	5,650	2,376
1948	45,300	3,574	572	1,168	1,834	5,117	10,758	9,723	7,975	5,770	2,385
1949	45,674	3,479	577	1,108	1,791	5,198	10,886	9,860	8,043	5,755	2,454
1950	46,069	3,444	623	1,079	1,742	5,224	11,044	9,952	8,152	5,800	2,453
1951	46,674	3,476	611	1,148	1,717	5,267	11,269	10,056	8,254	5,882	2,469
1952	47,001	3,396	585	1,154	1,658	5,223	11,446	10,189	8,374	5,957	2,415
1953 [2]	47,692	3,338	561	1,125	1,652	5,084	11,469	10,669	8,612	5,979	2,544
1954	47,847	3,299	572	1,073	1,653	4,959	11,467	10,748	8,743	6,110	2,525
1955	48,054	3,378	566	1,130	1,682	4,851	11,464	10,833	8,877	6,125	2,526
1956	48,579	3,612	665	1,216	1,731	4,814	11,359	10,926	9,044	6,224	2,604
1957	48,649	3,669	685	1,207	1,778	4,781	11,247	11,046	9,201	6,227	2,477
1958	48,802	3,627	676	1,197	1,754	4,849	11,108	11,161	9,369	6,308	2,379
1959	49,081	3,718	676	1,256	1,786	4,987	10,981	11,235	9,488	6,350	2,321
1960 [2]	49,507	3,821	637	1,335	1,849	5,089	10,930	11,340	9,634	6,405	2,287
1961	49,918	3,954	725	1,271	1,958	5,187	10,880	11,403	9,741	6,535	2,220
1962 [2]	50,175	4,032	780	1,225	2,027	5,272	10,720	11,542	9,803	6,565	2,241
1963	50,573	4,142	738	1,372	2,034	5,471	10,635	11,589	9,923	6,679	2,135
1964	51,118	4,307	731	1,549	2,026	5,704	10,636	11,559	10,043	6,745	2,123
1965	51,705	4,591	759	1,577	2,254	5,926	10,653	11,504	10,131	6,768	2,131
FEMALE											
1947	16,915	2,067	232	643	1,192	2,725	3,750	3,676	2,730	1,522	445
1948	17,599	2,083	248	671	1,164	2,721	3,940	3,804	2,973	1,565	514
1949	18,048	2,054	242	648	1,165	2,662	4,006	3,993	3,100	1,678	556
1950	18,680	1,982	268	611	1,103	2,681	4,101	4,166	3,328	1,839	584
1951	19,309	2,018	255	663	1,100	2,670	4,305	4,307	3,535	1,923	551
1952	19,558	2,002	244	706	1,052	2,519	4,335	4,444	3,637	2,032	590
1953 [2]	19,668	1,952	239	656	1,057	2,447	4,175	4,668	3,682	2,048	693
1954	19,971	1,941	253	620	1,068	2,441	4,224	4,715	3,824	2,164	666
1955	20,842	1,987	258	641	1,088	2,458	4,261	4,808	4,155	2,391	780
1956	21,808	2,182	313	736	1,132	2,467	4,285	5,036	4,407	2,610	821
1957	22,097	2,198	332	716	1,150	2,453	4,263	5,121	4,618	2,631	813
1958	22,482	2,171	333	685	1,153	2,510	4,201	5,190	4,862	2,727	822
1959	22,865	2,251	349	765	1,137	2,484	4,096	5,232	5,083	2,883	836
1960 [2]	23,619	2,408	347	865	1,257	2,590	4,140	5,308	5,280	2,986	907
1961	24,257	2,567	419	774	1,374	2,708	4,151	5,394	5,405	3,105	926
1962 [2]	24,507	2,613	460	741	1,411	2,814	4,111	5,479	5,383	3,198	911
1963	25,141	2,643	405	850	1,388	2,970	4,181	5,604	5,505	3,332	905
1964	25,854	2,732	411	950	1,371	3,220	4,187	5,618	5,682	3,447	966
1965	26,653	2,940	421	954	1,565	3,375	4,336	5,724	5,714	3,587	976
	Labor force participation rate										
MALE											
1947	84.5	54.3	27.7	52.2	80.5	84.9	95.8	98.0	95.5	89.6	47.8
1948	84.7	54.5	27.5	53.4	79.9	85.7	96.1	98.0	95.8	89.5	46.8
1949	84.5	53.7	27.4	52.3	79.5	87.8	95.9	98.0	95.6	87.5	46.9
1950	84.5	53.4	28.7	52.0	79.0	89.1	96.2	97.6	95.8	86.9	45.8
1951	84.9	53.9	27.7	54.5	80.3	91.1	97.1	97.6	96.0	87.2	44.9
1952	84.7	52.1	25.9	53.1	79.1	92.1	97.7	97.9	96.2	87.5	42.6
1953	84.4	50.9	24.6	51.7	78.5	92.2	97.6	98.2	96.6	87.9	41.6
1954	83.9	49.3	24.7	48.3	76.5	91.5	97.5	98.1	96.5	88.7	40.5
1955	83.6	49.5	24.0	49.5	77.1	90.8	97.7	98.1	96.5	87.9	39.6
1956	83.7	51.4	26.6	52.6	77.9	90.8	97.4	98.0	96.6	88.5	40.0
1957	82.7	49.7	25.1	51.1	77.7	89.8	97.3	97.9	96.4	87.5	37.5
1958	82.1	47.4	23.8	47.9	75.7	89.5	97.3	98.0	96.3	87.8	35.6
1959	81.7	47.2	24.2	46.0	75.5	90.1	97.5	97.8	96.0	87.4	34.2
1960	81.2	46.5	22.3	46.8	73.6	90.2	97.7	97.7	95.8	86.8	33.1
1961	80.3	44.6	21.8	45.4	71.3	89.8	97.6	97.7	95.6	87.3	31.7
1962	79.3	43.6	21.6	43.5	71.9	89.1	97.4	97.7	95.6	86.2	30.3
1963	78.8	43.5	20.9	42.7	73.1	88.3	97.3	97.6	95.8	86.2	28.4
1964	78.6	43.6	20.8	43.6	72.0	88.2	97.5	97.4	95.8	85.6	28.0
1965	78.3	44.5	21.4	44.6	70.0	88.0	97.4	97.4	95.6	84.7	27.9
FEMALE											
1947	31.0	31.6	11.2	29.5	52.3	44.9	32.0	36.3	32.7	24.3	8.1
1948	31.9	32.5	12.2	31.4	52.1	45.3	33.2	36.9	35.0	24.3	9.1
1949	32.4	32.5	11.8	31.2	53.0	45.0	33.5	38.1	35.9	25.3	9.6
1950	33.1	31.5	12.7	30.1	51.3	46.1	34.0	39.1	38.0	27.0	9.7
1951	33.8	32.1	11.9	32.2	52.7	46.6	35.4	39.8	39.7	27.6	8.9
1952	33.9	31.5	11.1	33.4	51.4	44.8	35.5	40.5	40.1	28.7	9.1
1953	33.6	30.5	10.8	31.0	50.8	44.5	34.1	41.3	40.4	29.1	10.0
1954	33.7	29.8	11.3	28.7	50.5	45.3	34.5	41.3	41.2	30.1	9.3
1955	34.8	29.9	11.3	28.9	51.0	46.0	34.9	41.6	43.8	32.5	10.6
1956	35.9	31.9	12.9	32.8	52.1	46.4	35.4	43.1	45.5	34.9	10.9
1957	35.9	30.6	12.5	31.1	51.5	46.0	35.6	43.3	46.5	34.5	10.5
1958	36.0	29.1	12.1	28.1	51.0	46.4	35.6	43.4	47.9	35.2	10.3
1959	36.1	29.3	12.9	28.8	49.1	45.2	35.4	43.4	49.0	36.6	10.2
1960	36.7	30.2	12.6	29.1	51.1	46.2	36.0	43.5	49.8	37.2	10.8
1961	36.9	29.9	13.1	28.5	51.1	47.1	36.4	43.8	50.1	37.9	10.7
1962	36.7	29.0	13.2	27.1	50.9	47.4	36.4	44.1	50.0	38.7	9.9
1963	37.0	28.4	11.8	27.1	50.6	47.6	37.2	44.9	50.6	39.7	9.6
1964	37.4	28.3	12.0	27.4	49.3	49.5	37.3	45.0	51.4	40.2	10.1
1965	38.0	29.2	12.2	27.7	49.4	50.0	38.6	46.1	50.9	41.1	10.0

[1] Percent of noninstitutional population in the labor force.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

Table A–3. Civilian Labor Force, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–65 [1]

[Thousands]

Item	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years				20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
		Total	14 and 15	16 and 17	18 and 19						
MALE											
1947	43,272	3,074	586	1,106	1,382	4,629	10,207	9,492	7,847	5,647	2,376
1948	43,858	3,173	573	1,109	1,491	4,674	10,327	9,596	7,942	5,764	2,384
1949	44,075	3,054	577	1,056	1,421	4,681	10,410	9,722	8,008	5,748	2,454
1950	44,442	3,127	623	1,047	1,457	4,632	10,527	9,793	8,117	5,794	2,454
1951	43,612	2,957	611	1,080	1,266	3,935	10,375	9,798	8,204	5,874	2,469
1952	43,454	2,896	585	1,101	1,210	3,338	10,585	9,945	8,326	5,950	2,415
1953 [2]	44,194	2,880	561	1,070	1,249	3,054	10,737	10,436	8,570	5,974	2,544
1954	44,537	2,868	572	1,024	1,273	3,052	10,772	10,513	8,703	6,105	2,525
1955	45,041	2,935	566	1,070	1,299	3,221	10,805	10,595	8,839	6,122	2,526
1956	45,756	3,098	665	1,142	1,292	3,485	10,685	10,663	9,002	6,220	2,603
1957	45,882	3,102	685	1,127	1,290	3,626	10,571	10,731	9,153	6,222	2,478
1958	46,197	3,104	676	1,133	1,295	3,771	10,475	10,843	9,320	6,304	2,379
1959	46,561	3,273	676	1,207	1,391	3,940	10,346	10,899	9,437	6,345	2,322
1960 [2]	47,025	3,423	637	1,290	1,496	4,123	10,252	10,967	9,574	6,400	2,287
1961	47,378	3,518	725	1,210	1,583	4,255	10,176	11,012	9,667	6,530	2,220
1962 [2]	47,380	3,549	780	1,177	1,592	4,279	9,921	11,115	9,715	6,560	2,241
1963	47,867	3,645	738	1,321	1,586	4,514	9,875	11,187	9,836	6,674	2,135
1964	48,410	3,806	731	1,498	1,576	4,754	9,875	11,155	9,956	6,740	2,123
1965	49,014	4,157	759	1,531	1,866	4,894	9,902	11,121	10,045	6,763	2,131
FEMALE											
1947	16,896	2,067	232	643	1,192	2,716	3,740	3,676	2,731	1,522	445
1948	17,583	2,083	248	671	1,164	2,719	3,932	3,800	2,972	1,565	514
1949	18,030	2,053	242	648	1,163	2,659	3,997	3,989	3,099	1,678	556
1950	18,657	1,980	268	611	1,101	2,675	4,092	4,161	3,327	1,839	584
1951	19,272	2,013	256	662	1,095	2,659	4,292	4,301	3,534	1,923	551
1952	19,513	1,996	244	706	1,046	2,502	4,320	4,438	3,636	2,032	590
1953 [2]	19,621	1,945	239	656	1,050	2,428	4,162	4,662	3,680	2,048	693
1954	19,931	1,933	253	620	1,062	2,424	4,212	4,709	3,822	2,164	666
1955	20,806	1,982	258	641	1,083	2,445	4,251	4,805	4,154	2,391	780
1956	21,774	2,176	313	736	1,127	2,455	4,276	5,031	4,405	2,610	821
1957	22,064	2,192	332	716	1,144	2,442	4,255	5,116	4,615	2,631	813
1958	22,451	2,165	333	685	1,147	2,500	4,193	5,185	4,859	2,727	822
1959	22,833	2,244	349	765	1,131	2,473	4,089	5,227	5,081	2,883	836
1960 [2]	23,587	2,402	347	805	1,250	2,580	4,131	5,303	5,278	2,986	907
1961	24,225	2,560	419	774	1,368	2,697	4,143	5,389	5,403	3,105	926
1962 [2]	24,474	2,607	460	742	1,405	2,802	4,103	5,474	5,381	3,198	911
1963	25,109	2,636	405	850	1,381	2,959	4,174	5,600	5,503	3,332	905
1964	25,823	2,725	411	950	1,364	3,210	4,180	5,614	5,680	3,447	966
1965	26,621	2,934	421	954	1,559	3,364	4,329	5,720	5,712	3,587	976
WHITE											
Male											
1954	40,255	2,484	495	895	1,094	2,656	9,695	9,516	7,914	5,654	2,338
1955	40,683	2,542	487	934	1,121	2,802	9,720	9,598	8,027	5,653	2,342
1956	41,320	2,700	586	1,003	1,111	3,034	9,594	9,662	8,175	5,736	2,417
1957	41,428	2,714	607	992	1,115	3,153	9,483	9,719	8,317	5,735	2,308
1958	41,686	2,723	606	1,001	1,116	3,278	9,386	9,822	8,465	5,800	2,213
1959	41,993	2,875	596	1,077	1,202	3,408	9,261	9,876	8,581	5,833	2,158
1960 [2]	42,297	2,988	555	1,140	1,293	3,559	9,153	9,919	8,689	5,861	2,129
1961	42,635	3,088	649	1,067	1,372	3,681	9,072	9,961	8,776	5,988	2,068
1962 [2]	42,641	3,142	710	1,041	1,391	3,726	8,846	10,029	8,820	5,995	2,062
1963	43,065	3,224	661	1,183	1,380	3,955	8,805	10,079	8,944	6,090	1,967
1964	43,539	3,361	646	1,345	1,371	4,166	8,800	10,055	9,053	6,160	1,943
1965	44,069	3,668	669	1,359	1,639	4,279	8,823	10,023	9,129	6,188	1,958
Female											
1954	17,262	1,717	205	552	960	2,098	3,532	4,025	3,346	1,937	607
1955	18,110	1,766	224	576	966	2,137	3,546	4,131	3,654	2,156	720
1956	18,962	1,926	269	654	1,003	2,158	3,559	4,340	3,886	2,344	748
1957	19,212	1,959	292	645	1,022	2,131	3,561	4,397	4,065	2,357	743
1958	19,508	1,937	295	614	1,028	2,172	3,498	4,435	4,262	2,454	751
1959	19,863	2,028	307	698	1,023	2,135	3,409	4,479	4,467	2,577	767
1960 [2]	20,471	2,143	300	731	1,112	2,228	3,441	4,531	4,633	2,661	835
1961	21,044	2,298	376	700	1,222	2,345	3,431	4,596	4,741	2,785	849
1962 [2]	21,237	2,340	418	668	1,254	2,438	3,372	4,666	4,731	2,861	830
1963	21,791	2,360	365	767	1,228	2,582	3,424	4,780	4,845	2,977	823
1964	22,402	2,442	374	867	1,201	2,786	3,435	4,797	4,989	3,077	874
1965	23,118	2,649	382	862	1,405	2,910	3,568	4,876	5,032	3,203	879
NONWHITE											
Male											
1954	4,282	384	79	127	178	396	1,075	997	790	451	187
1955	4,358	392	79	135	178	419	1,085	998	813	468	183
1956	4,436	398	77	140	181	450	1,090	1,002	827	484	185
1957	4,454	388	78	135	175	473	1,088	1,012	836	487	170
1958	4,511	382	69	133	180	493	1,089	1,021	855	505	166
1959	4,569	397	79	130	188	532	1,085	1,023	849	512	163
1960 [2]	4,728	436	83	150	203	564	1,099	1,049	884	538	158
1961	4,743	429	77	142	210	575	1,103	1,050	891	542	151
1962 [2]	4,739	408	71	136	201	553	1,074	1,087	895	564	159
1963	4,802	421	77	138	206	558	1,070	1,109	891	584	168
1964	4,871	445	86	154	205	588	1,074	1,101	903	580	181
1965	4,945	489	90	172	226	614	1,079	1,098	916	575	173

Footnotes at end of table.

Table A–3. Civilian Labor Force, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–65 [1]—Continued

Item	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years				20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
		Total	14 and 15	16 and 17	18 and 19						
NONWHITE											
Female											
1954	2,668	216	47	68	101	326	680	684	476	226	59
1955	2,697	216	34	65	117	307	706	673	499	235	60
1956	2,812	250	44	82	124	297	717	692	519	266	72
1957	2,852	233	40	71	122	311	694	719	550	274	70
1958	2,943	229	38	71	120	328	695	750	597	274	72
1959	2,970	215	42	66	107	338	680	748	614	304	69
1960 [2]	3,116	260	47	74	139	352	690	771	645	324	73
1961	3,180	264	44	74	146	353	712	793	662	320	77
1962 [2]	3,237	266	42	73	151	364	730	809	650	336	82
1963	3,318	274	39	82	153	377	749	821	656	354	84
1964	3,421	283	37	83	164	424	744	818	690	370	92
1965	3,503	285	39	92	154	454	761	844	680	383	96

[1] Absolute numbers by color are not available prior to 1954 because population controls by color were not introduced into the *Current Population Survey* until that year.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

Table A–4. Civilian Labor Force Participation Rates,[1] by Color, Sex, and Age: Annual Averages, 1948–65

Item	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years				20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
		Total	14 and 15	16 and 17	18 and 19						
WHITE											
Male											
1948	84.2	50.7	26.1	51.2	76.2	84.4	96.0	98.0	95.9	89.6	46.5
1949	84.0	49.4	26.3	50.1	74.8	86.5	95.9	98.0	95.6	87.6	46.6
1950	84.1	50.3	27.6	50.5	75.6	87.5	96.4	97.7	95.9	87.3	45.8
1951	84.0	49.2	26.9	52.7	74.2	88.4	97.0	97.6	96.0	87.4	44.5
1952	83.6	47.6	25.3	51.9	72.7	87.6	97.6	97.9	96.3	87.7	42.5
1953	83.1	46.4	23.6	49.8	72.8	87.4	97.5	97.9	96.4	87.7	41.3
1954	83.0	45.4	24.5	47.1	70.4	86.4	97.5	98.2	96.8	89.2	40.4
1955	82.8	45.6	23.5	48.0	71.7	85.6	97.8	98.3	96.7	88.4	39.5
1956	83.0	47.4	26.7	51.3	71.9	87.6	97.4	98.1	96.8	88.9	40.0
1957	82.0	45.4	25.1	49.6	71.6	86.7	97.2	98.0	96.6	88.0	37.7
1958	81.3	43.5	24.1	46.8	69.4	86.7	97.2	98.0	96.6	88.2	35.7
1959	81.0	44.0	24.2	45.4	70.3	87.3	97.5	98.0	96.3	87.9	34.3
1960	80.5	43.6	22.2	46.0	69.0	87.8	97.7	97.9	96.1	87.2	33.3
1961	79.7	41.7	22.2	44.3	66.2	87.6	97.7	97.9	95.9	87.8	31.9
1962	78.6	40.8	22.3	42.9	66.4	86.5	97.4	97.9	96.0	86.7	30.6
1963	78.1	40.7	21.4	42.4	67.8	85.8	97.4	97.8	96.2	86.6	28.4
1964	77.9	41.0	21.2	43.5	66.6	85.7	97.5	97.6	96.1	86.1	27.9
1965	77.6	42.6	21.7	44.6	65.8	85.3	97.4	97.7	95.9	85.2	27.9
Female											
1948	30.6	32.8	11.1	31.7	53.5	45.1	31.3	35.1	33.3	23.3	8.6
1949	31.0	32.4	10.3	31.4	54.0	44.4	31.7	36.1	34.3	24.2	9.1
1950	31.8	31.6	11.5	30.1	52.6	45.9	32.1	37.2	36.3	26.0	9.2
1951	32.6	32.5	11.2	32.4	54.1	46.7	33.6	38.0	38.0	26.5	8.5
1952	32.7	31.7	10.2	34.1	52.0	44.8	33.8	38.9	38.8	27.6	8.7
1953	32.0	30.5	9.9	31.2	51.9	44.1	31.7	38.8	38.7	28.5	9.4
1954	32.5	30.3	10.5	29.3	52.1	44.4	32.5	39.4	39.8	29.1	9.1
1955	33.7	30.5	11.2	29.9	52.0	45.8	32.8	39.9	42.7	31.8	10.5
1956	34.8	32.3	12.7	33.5	53.0	46.5	33.2	41.5	44.4	34.0	10.6
1957	34.7	31.2	12.5	32.1	52.6	45.8	33.6	41.5	45.4	33.7	10.2
1958	34.8	29.7	12.2	28.8	52.3	46.1	33.6	41.4	46.5	34.5	10.1
1959	35.0	30.2	13.0	29.9	50.8	44.5	33.4	41.4	47.8	35.7	10.2
1960	35.5	30.7	12.5	30.0	51.9	45.7	34.1	41.5	48.6	36.2	10.6
1961	35.8	30.6	13.5	29.4	51.9	46.9	34.3	41.8	48.9	37.2	10.5
1962	35.6	29.7	13.7	27.9	51.6	47.1	34.1	42.2	48.9	38.0	9.8
1963	35.9	29.0	12.2	27.9	51.3	47.3	34.8	43.1	49.5	38.9	9.4
1964	36.4	29.0	12.7	28.5	49.6	48.8	35.0	43.3	50.2	39.4	9.9
1965	36.9	30.3	12.9	28.7	50.6	49.2	36.3	44.3	49.9	40.3	9.7
NONWHITE											
Male											
1948	84.8	58.3	39.3	59.8	77.8	85.6	95.3	97.2	94.7	88.6	50.3
1949	84.5	59.2	36.6	60.4	80.8	89.7	94.1	97.3	95.6	86.0	51.4
1950	83.3	56.1	37.7	57.4	78.2	91.4	92.6	96.2	95.1	81.9	45.5
1951	83.6	55.3	34.6	54.7	80.8	88.7	95.7	96.4	95.1	84.6	49.5
1952	83.8	49.5	30.5	52.3	79.1	92.8	96.2	97.2	95.0	85.7	43.3
1953	83.0	50.3	27.8	53.0	76.7	92.3	96.7	97.3	93.9	86.7	41.1
1954	82.0	48.7	27.2	46.7	78.4	91.1	96.2	96.6	93.2	83.0	41.2
1955	81.8	48.8	27.1	48.2	75.7	89.7	95.8	96.2	94.2	83.1	40.0
1956	81.8	48.3	25.5	49.6	76.4	88.9	96.2	96.2	94.4	83.9	39.8
1957	80.8	46.0	24.7	47.5	72.0	89.6	96.1	96.5	93.5	82.4	35.9
1958	80.4	44.0	21.3	45.1	71.7	88.7	96.3	96.4	93.9	83.3	34.5
1959	79.1	44.0	23.9	41.7	72.0	90.8	96.3	95.8	92.8	82.5	33.5
1960	79.4	45.0	23.3	45.6	71.2	90.4	96.2	95.5	92.3	82.5	31.2
1961	78.0	41.5	19.2	42.5	70.5	89.7	95.9	94.8	92.3	81.6	29.4
1962	76.4	38.4	16.5	40.2	68.8	89.3	95.3	94.5	92.2	81.5	27.2
1963	75.8	37.8	17.2	37.2	69.1	88.6	94.9	94.9	91.1	82.5	27.6
1964	75.6	37.7	18.7	37.3	67.2	89.4	95.9	94.4	91.6	80.6	29.6
1965	75.2	39.1	18.9	39.3	66.7	89.8	95.7	94.2	92.0	78.8	27.9
Female											
1948	44.4	30.5	21.0	29.1	41.2	47.1	50.6	53.3	51.1	37.6	17.5
1949	45.8	32.8	23.5	30.1	44.8	49.8	50.9	56.1	52.7	39.6	15.6
1950	45.7	31.0	22.0	30.2	40.6	46.9	51.6	55.7	54.3	40.9	16.5
1951	44.9	28.9	17.3	30.4	40.2	45.4	51.1	55.8	55.5	39.8	14.0
1952	44.2	28.3	18.5	27.4	44.7	43.9	50.1	54.0	52.7	42.3	14.3
1953	42.3	25.4	14.9	24.2	37.8	45.1	48.1	54.9	51.0	35.9	11.4
1954	44.7	25.7	16.2	24.5	37.7	49.6	49.7	57.5	53.4	41.2	12.2
1955	44.4	25.3	11.4	22.7	43.2	46.7	51.3	56.0	54.8	40.7	12.1
1956	45.6	28.6	14.4	28.3	44.6	44.9	52.1	57.0	55.3	44.5	14.5
1957	45.5	25.9	12.6	24.1	42.8	46.6	50.4	58.7	56.8	44.3	13.6
1958	46.2	24.8	11.6	23.2	41.2	48.3	50.8	60.8	59.8	42.8	13.3
1959	45.8	22.7	12.6	20.7	36.1	48.8	50.0	60.0	60.0	46.4	12.6
1960	46.3	25.8	13.2	22.1	44.3	48.8	49.7	59.8	60.5	47.3	12.8
1961	46.2	24.6	11.0	21.6	44.6	47.7	51.2	60.5	61.1	45.2	13.1
1962	45.6	24.0	9.7	21.0	45.5	48.6	52.0	59.7	60.5	46.1	12.2
1963	45.6	23.4	8.7	21.5	44.9	49.2	53.3	59.4	60.6	47.3	11.8
1964	46.0	22.8	8.0	19.5	46.5	53.6	52.8	58.4	62.3	48.4	12.7
1965	46.0	21.7	8.1	20.5	40.0	55.2	54.0	59.9	60.2	48.9	12.9

[1] Percent of civilian noninstitutional population in the civilian labor force.

Table A–5. Employment Status of the Civilian Labor Force, by Color, for Teenagers 14 to 19 Years Old and for Adults: Annual Averages, 1954–65 [1]

Employment status and year	White				Nonwhite			
	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years, both sexes	20 years and over		Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years, both sexes	20 years and over	
			Male	Female			Male	Female
Civilian Labor Force (thousands)								
1954	57,518	4,202	37,770	15,543	6,949	600	3,898	2,453
1955	58,799	4,308	38,143	16,346	7,055	608	3,966	2,480
1956	60,277	4,626	38,620	17,035	7,248	648	4,038	2,563
1957	60,640	4,673	38,714	17,253	7,306	621	4,066	2,619
1958	61,194	4,657	38,964	17,572	7,455	612	4,130	2,713
1959	61,855	4,905	39,118	17,834	7,539	613	4,171	2,755
1960 [2]	62,767	5,129	39,310	18,330	7,844	697	4,293	2,855
1961	63,679	5,386	39,547	18,747	7,924	693	4,313	2,918
1962 [2]	63,878	5,481	39,499	18,897	7,976	674	4,332	2,970
1963	64,855	5,584	39,841	19,430	8,119	696	4,381	3,042
1964	65,940	5,803	40,177	19,960	8,292	728	4,427	3,138
1965	67,187	6,317	40,401	20,468	8,448	774	4,456	3,218
Employed (thousands)								
1954	54,620	3,742	36,123	14,755	6,268	512	3,511	2,244
1955	56,504	3,896	36,896	15,712	6,442	518	3,632	2,290
1956	58,065	4,188	37,474	16,404	6,639	535	3,742	2,362
1957	58,290	4,211	37,479	16,600	6,721	509	3,760	2,452
1958	57,450	4,052	36,808	16,589	6,517	459	3,604	2,454
1959	58,851	4,321	37,533	16,998	6,730	469	3,734	2,527
1960 [2]	59,640	4,491	37,663	17,487	7,040	543	3,880	2,618
1961	59,860	4,641	37,533	17,687	6,936	517	3,809	2,610
1962 [2]	60,749	4,824	37,918	18,006	7,097	514	3,897	2,686
1963	61,574	4,803	38,272	18,499	7,234	498	3,979	2,757
1964	62,877	5,030	38,798	19,048	7,480	537	4,088	2,855
1965	64,432	5,549	39,232	19,652	7,747	578	4,190	2,979
Unemployed (thousands)								
1954	2,895	460	1,647	788	681	88	387	209
1955	2,293	412	1,247	634	613	90	334	190
1956	2,215	438	1,146	631	609	113	296	201
1957	2,351	462	1,236	657	585	112	306	165
1958	3,744	605	2,156	983	938	153	526	259
1959	3,004	584	1,585	836	809	144	437	228
1960 [2]	3,127	638	1,647	843	804	154	413	237
1961	3,819	745	2,014	1,060	988	176	504	308
1962 [2]	3,129	657	1,581	891	879	160	435	284
1963	3,281	781	1,569	931	885	198	402	285
1964	3,064	773	1,379	912	812	191	339	283
1965	2,754	769	1,169	817	702	196	267	239
Unemployment Rate								
1954	5.0	10.9	4.4	5.1	9.8	14.7	9.9	8.5
1955	3.9	9.6	3.3	3.9	8.7	14.8	8.4	7.7
1956	3.7	9.5	3.0	3.7	8.4	17.4	7.3	7.8
1957	3.9	9.9	3.2	3.8	8.0	18.0	7.5	6.3
1958	6.1	13.0	5.5	5.6	12.6	25.0	12.7	9.5
1959	4.9	11.9	4.1	4.7	10.7	23.5	10.5	8.3
1960 [2]	5.0	12.4	4.2	4.6	10.2	22.1	9.6	8.3
1961	6.0	13.8	5.1	5.7	12.5	25.4	11.7	10.6
1962 [2]	4.9	12.0	4.0	4.1	11.0	23.7	10.0	9.6
1963	5.1	14.0	3.9	4.8	10.9	28.4	9.2	9.4
1964	4.6	13.3	3.4	4.6	9.8	26.2	7.7	9.0
1965	4.1	12.2	2.9	4.0	8.3	25.3	6.0	7.4

[1] See footnote 1, table A–3.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

Table A–6. Employment Status of Young Workers 16 to 24 Years Old: Annual Averages, 1947–65

Employment status and year	Total, 14 years and over	Total, 16 to 24 years	16 to 19 years			20 to 24 years
			Total	16 and 17	18 and 19	
Civilian Labor Force (thousands)						
1947	60,168	11,668	4,323	1,750	2,573	7,345
1948	61,442	11,828	4,435	1,780	2,655	7,393
1949	62,105	11,629	4,289	1,704	2,585	7,340
1950	63,099	11,523	4,216	1,659	2,557	7,307
1951	62,884	10,699	4,105	1,743	2,362	6,594
1952	62,966	9,903	4,063	1,807	2,256	5,840
1953 [1]	63,815	9,509	4,026	1,726	2,300	5,483
1954	64,468	9,452	3,976	1,643	2,333	5,476
1955	65,848	9,759	4,093	1,711	2,382	5,666
1956	67,530	10,236	4,296	1,877	2,419	5,940
1957	67,946	10,344	4,276	1,843	2,433	6,068
1958	68,647	10,531	4,260	1,818	2,442	6,271
1959	69,394	10,905	4,492	1,971	2,521	6,413
1960 [1]	70,612	11,543	4,840	2,093	2,747	6,703
1961	71,603	11,888	4,935	1,984	2,951	6,953
1962 [1]	71,854	11,997	4,915	1,918	2,997	7,082
1963	72,975	12,611	5,138	2,171	2,967	7,473
1964	74,233	13,353	5,390	2,449	2,941	7,963
1965	75,635	14,168	5,910	2,485	3,425	8,258
Employed (thousands)						
1947	57,812	10,738	3,909	1,573	2,336	6,829
1948	59,117	10,965	4,028	1,602	2,426	6,937
1949	58,423	10,371	3,712	1,466	2,246	6,659
1950	59,748	10,449	3,703	1,433	2,270	6,746
1951	60,784	10,088	3,767	1,575	2,192	6,321
1952	61,035	9,289	3,718	1,626	2,092	5,571
1953 [1]	61,945	8,945	3,719	1,577	2,142	5,226
1954	60,890	8,446	3,475	1,422	2,053	4,971
1955	62,944	8,914	3,643	1,500	2,143	5,271
1956	64,708	9,364	3,818	1,647	2,171	5,546
1957	65,011	9,418	3,780	1,613	2,167	5,638
1958	63,966	9,152	3,582	1,519	2,063	5,570
1959	65,581	9,708	3,838	1,670	2,168	5,870
1960 [1]	66,681	10,249	4,129	1,769	2,360	6,120
1961	66,796	10,338	4,107	1,621	2,486	6,231
1962 [1]	67,846	10,641	4,195	1,607	2,588	6,446
1963	68,809	11,070	4,255	1,751	2,504	6,815
1964	70,357	11,820	4,516	2,013	2,503	7,304
1965	72,179	12,738	5,036	2,074	2,962	7,702
Unemployed (thousands)						
1947	2,356	930	414	177	237	516
1948	2,325	863	407	178	229	456
1949	3,682	1,255	575	238	337	680
1950	3,351	1,074	513	226	287	561
1951	2,099	609	336	168	168	273
1952	1,932	613	345	180	165	268
1953 [1]	1,870	563	307	150	157	256
1954	3,578	1,005	501	221	280	504
1955	2,904	846	450	211	239	396
1956	2,822	873	478	231	247	395
1957	2,936	925	496	230	266	429
1958	4,681	1,379	678	299	379	701
1959	3,813	1,197	654	301	353	543
1960 [1]	3,931	1,294	711	324	387	583
1961	4,806	1,550	828	363	465	722
1962 [1]	4,007	1,356	720	311	409	636
1963	4,166	1,541	883	420	463	658
1964	3,876	1,532	872	435	437	660
1965	3,456	1,431	874	411	463	557
Unemployment Rate						
1947	3.9	8.0	9.6	10.1	9.2	7.0
1948	3.8	7.3	9.2	10.0	8.6	6.2
1949	5.9	10.8	13.4	14.0	13.0	9.3
1950	5.3	9.3	12.2	13.6	11.2	7.7
1951	3.3	5.7	8.2	9.6	7.1	4.1
1952	3.1	6.2	8.5	10.0	7.3	4.6
1953 [1]	2.9	5.9	7.6	8.7	6.8	4.7
1954	5.6	10.6	12.6	13.5	12.0	9.2
1955	4.4	8.7	11.0	12.3	10.0	7.0
1956	4.2	8.5	11.1	12.3	10.2	6.6
1957	4.3	9.0	11.6	12.5	10.9	7.1
1958	6.8	13.1	15.9	16.4	15.5	11.2
1959	5.5	11.0	14.6	15.3	14.0	8.5
1960 [1]	5.6	11.2	14.7	15.5	14.1	8.7
1961	6.7	13.0	16.8	18.3	15.8	10.4
1962 [1]	5.6	11.3	14.6	16.2	13.6	9.0
1963	5.7	12.2	17.2	19.3	15.6	8.8
1964	5.2	11.5	16.2	17.8	14.9	8.3
1965	4.6	10.1	14.8	16.5	13.5	6.7

[1] See footnote 1, table A–1.

Table A–7. Persons Not in the Labor Force, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–65 [1]

[Thousands]

Item	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years				20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
		Total	14 and 15	16 and 17	18 and 19						
MALE											
1947	8,242	3,059	1,532	1,069	458	907	468	191	369	658	2,590
1948	8,213	2,982	1,503	1,019	460	854	441	202	348	678	2,710
1949	8,354	2,998	1,529	1,006	463	725	462	205	372	821	2,773
1950	8,457	3,010	1,551	996	463	639	437	242	356	871	2,904
1951	8,322	2,976	1,597	958	421	517	334	251	347	864	3,034
1952	8,502	3,127	1,670	1,020	437	451	270	220	330	849	3,255
1953 [2]	8,840	3,227	1,723	1,052	452	428	282	196	308	823	3,576
1954	9,169	3,396	1,738	1,151	507	458	295	206	316	780	3,716
1955	9,430	3,450	1,796	1,155	499	488	263	209	326	840	3,856
1956	9,465	3,419	1,832	1,096	491	486	299	226	321	812	3,902
1957	10,164	3,713	2,046	1,157	510	540	318	235	347	887	4,125
1958	10,677	4,027	2,163	1,302	562	568	311	233	355	875	4,305
1959	11,019	4,168	2,112	1,475	581	548	280	251	394	915	4,463
1960 [2]	11,493	4,397	2,219	1,515	663	556	262	263	427	973	4,615
1961	12,229	4,915	2,596	1,531	788	589	265	274	445	953	4,786
1962 [2]	13,059	5,209	2,828	1,587	794	646	288	274	447	1,050	5,145
1963	13,590	5,388	2,798	1,842	748	727	290	289	439	1,066	5,391
1964	13,947	5,571	2,778	2,005	788	766	270	312	446	1,133	5,451
1965	14,322	5,716	2,795	1,956	965	807	280	306	467	1,227	5,518
FEMALE											
1947	37,608	4,472	1,841	1,541	1,090	3,342	7,970	6,454	5,621	4,733	5,016
1948	37,520	4,320	1,783	1,466	1,071	3,285	7,912	6,500	5,511	4,879	5,114
1949	37,697	4,272	1,814	1,426	1,032	3,249	7,955	6,486	5,524	4,957	5,253
1950	37,724	4,313	1,843	1,422	1,048	3,136	7,958	6,486	5,442	4,966	5,423
1951	37,770	4,275	1,891	1,395	989	3,058	7,842	6,513	5,379	5,033	5,671
1952	38,208	4,351	1,947	1,408	996	3,100	7,870	6,535	5,426	5,060	5,867
1953 [2]	38,893	4,453	1,969	1,462	1,022	3,050	8,084	6,627	5,434	4,982	6,262
1954	39,232	4,575	1,985	1,542	1,048	2,953	8,024	6,708	5,465	5,037	6,469
1955	39,062	4,654	2,036	1,574	1,044	2,884	7,930	6,740	5,326	4,959	6,569
1956	38,883	4,665	2,114	1,508	1,043	2,847	7,814	6,648	5,285	4,874	6,751
1957	39,535	4,987	2,317	1,587	1,083	2,879	7,705	6,705	5,311	4,987	6,961
1958	39,990	5,278	2,416	1,752	1,110	2,895	7,683	6,765	5,298	5,018	7,154
1959	40,401	5,419	2,348	1,891	1,180	3,014	7,488	6,831	5,291	4,993	7,365
1960 [2]	40,749	5,574	2,406	1,963	1,205	3,014	7,354	6,905	5,323	5,051	7,528
1961	41,448	6,029	2,769	1,946	1,314	3,042	7,247	6,911	5,379	5,087	7,753
1962 [2]	42,341	6,390	3,033	1,998	1,359	3,125	7,194	6,935	5,374	5,067	8,256
1963	42,822	6,675	3,031	2,289	1,355	3,265	7,062	6,872	5,368	5,067	8,514
1964	43,225	6,932	3,000	2,522	1,410	3,287	7,044	6,859	5,370	5,122	8,610
1965	43,562	7,130	3,031	2,494	1,605	3,376	6,906	6,685	5,505	5,151	8,808
WHITE											
Male											
1954	8,229	2,993	1,527	1,007	459	418	253	172	258	687	3,449
1955	8,463	3,035	1,582	1,011	442	439	216	170	276	745	3,581
1956	8,479	2,996	1,609	952	435	430	257	186	271	719	3,621
1957	9,109	3,258	1,808	1,008	442	485	274	198	289	783	3,822
1958	9,576	3,539	1,909	1,139	491	505	270	196	300	774	3,990
1959	9,875	3,663	1,862	1,293	508	495	238	205	328	806	4,140
1960 [2]	10,270	3,861	1,945	1,336	580	495	220	212	353	860	4,266
1961	10,893	4,310	2,269	1,340	701	523	218	217	372	831	4,422
1962 [2]	11,592	4,556	2,468	1,385	703	580	234	210	371	922	4,719
1963	12,057	4,693	2,428	1,609	656	655	234	230	353	941	4,952
1964	12,379	4,837	2,403	1,746	688	696	223	246	363	992	5,021
1965	12,692	4,953	2,409	1,691	852	738	234	240	387	1,073	5,070
Female											
1954	35,927	3,954	1,741	1,332	881	2,622	7,338	6,202	5,051	4,715	6,044
1955	35,690	4,016	1,773	1,353	890	2,534	7,260	6,211	4,912	4,615	6,142
1956	35,531	4,040	1,852	1,299	889	2,484	7,154	6,126	4,866	4,542	6,319
1957	36,116	4,322	2,039	1,363	920	2,523	7,023	6,199	4,893	4,642	6,515
1958	36,559	4,582	2,127	1,517	938	2,543	6,909	6,281	4,897	4,653	6,691
1959	36,893	4,687	2,056	1,639	992	2,659	6,807	6,333	4,881	4,642	6,886
1960 [2]	37,139	4,827	2,095	1,702	1,030	2,645	6,656	6,387	4,903	4,688	7,030
1961	37,737	5,221	2,411	1,678	1,132	2,654	6,568	6,395	4,956	4,700	7,242
1962 [2]	38,484	5,545	2,643	1,724	1,178	2,740	6,522	6,388	4,950	4,672	7,666
1963	38,868	5,778	2,622	1,990	1,166	2,877	6,404	6,309	4,940	4,673	7,887
1964	39,209	5,973	2,572	2,180	1,221	2,921	6,379	6,277	4,953	4,727	7,979
1965	39,456	6,102	2,591	2,137	1,374	3,008	6,258	6,119	5,056	4,751	8,163
NONWHITE											
Male											
1954	940	405	211	145	49	40	45	34	57	94	266
1955	968	415	213	145	57	48	47	38	48	95	274
1956	986	423	225	142	56	57	43	39	49	93	281
1957	1,056	455	238	149	68	55	44	37	58	104	303
1958	1,100	488	255	162	71	63	42	37	55	101	314
1959	1,145	506	251	182	73	54	41	45	66	109	324
1960 [2]	1,223	534	273	179	82	61	42	50	75	114	348
1961	1,336	605	325	192	88	65	47	58	74	122	365
1962 [2]	1,468	652	359	202	91	66	54	63	76	129	425
1963	1,533	695	370	233	92	72	57	59	87	126	439
1964	1,568	734	375	259	100	70	46	65	84	140	430
1965	1,631	763	385	265	113	70	47	68	80	155	448

Footnotes at end of table.

Table A–7. Persons Not in the Labor Force, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–65 [1]—Continued

Item	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years				20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
		Total	14 and 15	16 and 17	18 and 19						
NONWHITE											
Female											
1954	3,306	621	244	210	167	330	687	507	415	322	425
1955	3,372	638	263	221	154	350	670	530	414	343	427
1956	3,351	624	262	208	154	363	659	520	419	332	431
1957	3,418	665	278	224	163	356	682	506	418	345	446
1958	3,431	695	280	235	171	351	674	494	401	364	461
1959	3,508	734	292	253	189	355	681	499	410	353	479
1960 [2]	3,610	746	310	261	175	370	697	519	419	363	497
1961	3,710	806	357	268	181	386	679	517	422	388	512
1962 [2]	3,857	844	389	274	181	385	673	546	424	395	590
1963	3,954	897	410	300	188	389	658	562	429	397	625
1964	4,016	959	428	342	189	367	664	582	417	395	631
1965	4,106	1,028	440	356	231	369	648	567	449	400	645

[1] See footnote 1, table A–3.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

Table A–8. Employed Persons, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–65 [1]

[Thousands]

Item	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years				20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
		Total	14 and 15	16 and 17	18 and 19						
MALE											
1947	41,552	2,776	558	992	1,226	4,238	9,858	9,242	7,644	5,485	2,309
1948	42,268	2,887	542	997	1,348	4,350	10,039	9,363	7,742	5,586	2,303
1949	41,473	2,672	547	911	1,213	4,196	9,870	9,308	7,661	5,438	2,329
1950	42,162	2,769	582	909	1,277	4,255	10,060	9,445	7,790	5,508	2,336
1951	42,362	2,738	582	979	1,177	3,780	10,134	9,607	8,012	5,711	2,382
1952	42,237	2,659	553	985	1,121	3,182	10,352	9,753	8,144	5,804	2,343
1953 [2]	42,966	2,671	535	976	1,159	2,902	10,500	10,229	8,374	5,808	2,483
1954	42,165	2,530	545	881	1,104	2,724	10,254	10,082	8,330	5,830	2,414
1955	43,152	2,626	531	936	1,159	2,974	10,453	10,267	8,553	5,857	2,424
1956	43,999	2,783	619	1,008	1,156	3,246	10,337	10,385	8,732	6,004	2,512
1957	43,990	2,750	633	987	1,130	3,343	10,222	10,427	8,851	6,002	2,394
1958	43,042	2,631	619	948	1,064	3,293	9,790	10,291	8,828	5,954	2,254
1959	44,089	2,821	623	1,015	1,183	3,597	9,863	10,492	9,048	6,058	2,210
1960 [3]	44,485	2,941	581	1,089	1,271	3,754	9,759	10,551	9,182	6,106	2,191
1961	44,318	2,976	662	989	1,325	3,798	9,591	10,505	9,194	6,156	2,098
1962 [3]	44,892	3,077	715	990	1,372	3,898	9,475	10,711	9,333	6,260	2,137
1963	45,330	3,079	673	1,073	1,333	4,118	9,431	10,801	9,479	6,385	2,039
1964	46,139	3,253	665	1,242	1,345	4,370	9,531	10,832	9,637	6,477	2,039
1965	47,034	3,612	694	1,284	1,634	4,583	9,611	10,837	9,792	6,542	2,057
FEMALE											
1947	16,259	1,905	214	581	1,110	2,591	3,606	3,577	2,659	1,484	436
1948	16,848	1,913	230	605	1,078	2,587	3,762	3,687	2,882	1,516	501
1949	16,947	1,812	224	555	1,033	2,463	3,760	3,800	2,975	1,604	535
1950	17,584	1,761	244	524	993	2,491	3,857	3,979	3,176	1,757	563
1951	18,421	1,851	239	596	1,015	2,541	4,099	4,139	3,409	1,847	535
1952	18,798	1,840	228	641	971	2,389	4,163	4,305	3,543	1,981	576
1953 [2]	18,979	1,813	229	601	983	2,324	4,019	4,545	3,595	1,998	683
1954	18,724	1,724	234	541	949	2,247	3,936	4,459	3,646	2,065	646
1955	19,790	1,788	240	564	984	2,297	4,028	4,612	4,003	2,301	761
1956	20,707	1,940	285	639	1,015	2,300	4,070	4,833	4,246	2,515	802
1957	21,021	1,970	307	626	1,037	2,295	4,031	4,921	4,469	2,550	784
1958	20,924	1,881	311	571	999	2,277	3,885	4,866	4,620	2,604	791
1959	21,492	1,968	328	655	985	2,273	3,846	4,961	4,867	2,764	812
1960 [3]	22,196	2,091	322	680	1,089	2,366	3,871	5,046	5,055	2,884	882
1961	22,478	2,181	388	632	1,161	2,433	3,838	5,047	5,124	2,964	889
1962 [3]	22,954	2,262	429	617	1,216	2,548	3,836	5,190	5,158	3,086	875
1963	23,479	2,223	374	678	1,171	2,697	3,888	5,313	5,272	3,211	877
1964	24,218	2,316	387	771	1,158	2,934	3,918	5,335	5,457	3,326	934
1965	25,145	2,515	397	790	1,328	3,119	4,093	5,457	5,528	3,486	948
WHITE											
Male											
1954	38,317	2,195	470	771	953	2,394	9,287	9,175	7,614	5,412	2,241
1955	39,183	2,287	462	821	1,004	2,607	9,461	9,351	7,792	5,431	2,254
1956	39,918	2,444	552	890	1,002	2,850	9,330	9,449	7,950	5,559	2,336
1957	39,909	2,430	566	874	990	2,930	9,226	9,480	8,067	5,542	2,234
1958	39,150	2,342	558	852	932	2,896	8,861	9,386	8,061	5,501	2,103
1959	40,047	2,515	554	915	1,046	3,153	8,911	9,560	8,261	5,588	2,060
1960 [3]	40,265	2,602	510	973	1,119	3,264	8,777	9,589	8,372	5,618	2,043
1961	40,185	2,652	597	891	1,164	3,311	8,630	9,566	8,394	5,670	1,961
1962 [3]	40,672	2,754	656	883	1,215	3,426	8,514	9,718	8,512	5,749	1,998
1963	41,037	2,765	609	972	1,184	3,646	8,463	9,782	8,650	5,844	1,887
1964	41,710	2,911	596	1,128	1,188	3,856	8,538	9,800	8,787	5,945	1,872
1965	42,466	3,234	622	1,159	1,453	4,025	8,598	9,795	8,924	5,998	1,892
Female											
1954	16,302	1,547	192	486	869	1,964	3,329	3,825	3,197	1,850	590
1955	17,321	1,609	208	509	892	2,030	3,394	3,976	3,530	2,079	703
1956	18,147	1,744	248	575	920	2,047	3,418	4,188	3,756	2,263	732
1957	18,381	1,781	272	568	941	2,022	3,393	4,236	3,942	2,287	717
1958	18,300	1,711	278	518	915	2,012	3,267	4,185	4,052	2,348	725
1959	18,804	1,806	292	605	909	1,985	3,233	4,270	4,291	2,475	745
1960 [3]	19,376	1,890	281	625	984	2,067	3,244	4,341	4,448	2,574	812
1961	19,675	1,988	351	581	1,056	2,149	3,205	4,339	4,512	2,665	817
1962 [3]	20,077	2,071	395	564	1,112	2,250	3,189	4,455	4,554	2,762	797
1963	20,538	2,038	344	628	1,066	2,390	3,226	4,559	4,654	2,874	796
1964	21,167	2,119	359	718	1,042	2,588	3,256	4,580	4,809	2,971	845
1965	21,966	2,315	365	733	1,217	2,727	3,394	4,678	4,880	3,118	856
NONWHITE											
Male											
1954	3,847	335	75	110	151	330	967	907	716	418	173
1955	3,972	339	69	115	155	367	992	916	761	426	170
1956	4,081	339	67	118	154	396	1,007	936	782	445	176
1957	4,080	321	67	113	140	413	996	947	784	460	160
1958	3,891	289	60	97	132	397	929	905	767	454	151
1959	4,041	307	69	101	137	445	951	932	787	470	150
1960 [3]	4,220	340	72	116	152	490	982	963	809	487	148
1961	4,133	324	66	98	160	487	961	938	800	485	137
1962 [3]	4,220	323	60	106	157	472	961	993	821	510	140
1963	4,293	314	64	101	149	471	968	1,019	828	541	151
1964	4,429	341	70	114	158	514	993	1,032	850	533	167
1965	4,568	378	72	126	181	558	1,013	1,043	869	543	165

Footnotes at end of table.

Table A–8. Employed Persons, by Sex, Color, and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–65 [1]—Continued

Item	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years				20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
		Total	14 and 15	16 and 17	18 and 19						
NONWHITE											
Female											
1954	2,420	177	42	55	80	283	607	634	449	215	56
1955	2,470	179	32	55	92	267	634	636	473	222	58
1956	2,558	196	37	64	95	253	652	645	490	252	70
1957	2,641	189	35	58	96	273	638	685	527	263	67
1958	2,624	170	33	53	84	265	618	681	568	257	67
1959	2,689	162	37	50	75	288	614	691	577	289	67
1960 [2]	2,821	202	42	55	105	298	627	705	608	310	70
1961	2,803	194	38	51	105	284	633	708	613	300	72
1962 [2]	2,878	191	34	53	104	298	647	736	604	324	78
1963	2,941	183	30	49	104	307	661	754	617	337	81
1964	3,052	196	28	53	116	346	662	754	649	355	90
1965	3,179	200	32	57	111	392	698	779	649	369	93

[1] See footnote 1, table A–3.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

Table A–9. Employed Persons, by Type of Industry and Class of Worker: Annual Averages, 1947–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over]

Year	Total employed	Agriculture				Nonagricultural industries						
		Total	Wage and salary workers	Self-employed workers	Unpaid family workers	Total	Wage and salary workers				Self-employed workers	Unpaid family workers
							Total	Private household [1]	Government	Other		
	Number employed (thousands)											
1947	58,027	8,266	1,677	4,973	1,616	49,761	43,290	1,714	5,041	36,534	6,045	427
1948	59,378	7,973	1,746	4,671	1,556	51,405	44,866	1,731	5,288	37,847	6,139	401
1949	58,710	8,026	1,845	4,618	1,563	50,684	44,080	1,772	5,440	36,869	6,208	396
1950	59,957	7,507	1,733	4,346	1,427	52,450	45,977	1,995	5,817	38,165	6,069	404
1951	61,005	7,054	1,647	4,022	1,386	53,951	47,682	2,055	6,089	39,538	5,869	400
1952	61,293	6,805	1,526	3,936	1,342	54,488	48,387	1,922	6,493	39,971	5,670	431
1953 [2]	62,213	6,562	1,467	3,821	1,273	55,651	49,434	1,985	6,572	40,877	5,794	423
1954	61,238	6,504	1,452	3,821	1,230	54,733	48,409	1,919	6,643	39,847	5,880	445
1955	63,193	6,730	1,700	3,731	1,299	56,464	50,054	2,216	6,838	40,999	5,886	524
1956 [3]	64,979	6,585	1,692	3,570	1,323	58,394	51,877	2,359	6,934	42,584	5,936	581
1957	65,011	6,222	1,687	3,304	1,231	58,789	52,073	2,328	7,185	42,559	6,089	626
1958	63,966	5,844	1,671	3,087	1,086	58,122	51,332	2,456	7,481	41,394	6,185	605
1959	65,581	5,836	1,689	3,027	1,121	59,745	52,850	2,520	7,695	42,636	6,298	597
1960 [2]	66,681	5,723	1,866	2,802	1,054	60,958	53,976	2,489	7,943	43,544	6,367	615
1961	66,796	5,463	1,733	2,744	985	61,333	54,284	2,594	8,186	43,505	6,388	662
1962 [2]	67,846	5,190	1,666	2,619	905	62,657	55,762	2,626	8,703	44,433	6,271	623
1963	68,809	4,946	1,676	2,437	834	63,863	57,081	2,583	9,093	45,405	6,195	587
1964	70,357	4,761	1,582	2,366	813	65,596	58,736	2,621	9,363	46,752	6,266	594
1965	72,179	4,585	1,492	2,307	786	67,594	60,765	2,548	9,623	48,594	6,213	616
	Percent distribution											
1947	100.0	14.2	2.9	8.6	2.8	85.8	74.6	3.0	8.7	63.0	10.4	.7
1948	100.0	13.4	2.9	7.9	2.6	86.6	75.6	2.9	8.9	63.7	10.3	.7
1949	100.0	13.7	3.1	7.9	2.7	86.3	75.1	3.0	9.3	62.8	10.6	.7
1950	100.0	12.5	2.9	7.2	2.4	87.5	76.7	3.3	9.7	63.7	10.1	.7
1951	100.0	11.6	2.7	6.6	2.3	88.4	78.2	3.4	10.0	64.8	9.6	.7
1952	100.0	11.1	2.5	6.4	2.2	88.9	78.9	3.1	10.6	65.2	9.3	.7
1953 [2]	100.0	10.5	2.4	6.1	2.0	89.5	79.5	3.2	10.6	65.7	9.3	.7
1954	100.0	10.6	2.4	6.2	2.0	89.4	79.1	3.1	10.8	65.1	9.6	.7
1955	100.0	10.6	2.7	5.9	2.1	89.4	79.2	3.5	10.8	64.9	9.3	.8
1956 [3]	100.0	10.1	2.6	5.5	2.0	89.9	79.8	3.6	10.7	65.5	9.1	.9
1957	100.0	9.6	2.6	5.1	1.9	90.4	80.1	3.6	11.1	65.5	9.4	1.0
1958	100.0	9.1	2.6	4.8	1.7	90.9	80.2	3.8	11.7	64.7	9.7	.9
1959	100.0	8.9	2.6	4.6	1.7	91.1	80.6	3.8	11.7	65.0	9.6	.9
1960 [2]	100.0	8.6	2.8	4.2	1.6	91.4	80.9	3.7	11.9	65.3	9.5	.9
1961	100.0	8.2	2.6	4.1	1.5	91.8	81.3	3.9	12.3	65.1	9.6	1.0
1962 [2]	100.0	7.6	2.5	3.9	1.3	92.4	82.2	3.9	12.8	65.5	9.2	.9
1963	100.0	7.2	2.4	3.5	1.2	92.8	83.0	3.8	13.2	66.0	9.0	.9
1964	100.0	6.8	2.2	3.4	1.2	93.2	83.5	3.7	13.3	66.4	8.9	.8
1965	100.0	6.4	2.1	3.2	1.1	93.6	84.2	3.5	13.3	67.3	8.6	.9

[1] Differs from the occupation group of private household workers. These figures relate to wage and salary workers in private households regardless of type of occupation, while the occupational data relate to persons whose occupational category is service worker in private households, regardless of class of worker status.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[3] Data for the employed and unemployed for the period 1947–56 have *not* been adjusted to reflect changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment adopted in January 1957. Two groups averaging about 250,000 workers who were formerly classified as employed (with a job but not at work)—those on temporary layoff and those waiting to start new wage and salary jobs within 30 days—were assigned to different classifications, mostly to the unemployed. The changes mainly affected the total for nonagricultural wage and salary workers, which was reduced by about 0.5 percent; there was little impact on any individual category in the group.

Table A–10. Employed Persons, by Major Occupation Group and Sex: Annual Averages,[1] 1947–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over]

Sex and year	Total employed	White-collar workers					Blue-collar workers				Service workers			Farm workers		
		Total	Professional, technical, and kindred workers	Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm	Clerical and kindred workers	Sales workers	Total	Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	Operatives and kindred workers	Laborers, exc. farm and mine	Total	Private household workers	Service workers, exc. private household	Total	Farmers and farm managers	Farm laborers and foremen
	Number employed (thousands)															
BOTH SEXES																
1947	57,843	20,185	3,795	5,795	7,200	3,395	23,554	7,754	12,274	3,526	5,987	1,731	4,256	8,120	4,995	3,125
1948	59,307	21,400	3,977	6,344	7,438	3,641	23,988	8,119	12,396	3,473	6,040	1,754	4,286	7,881	4,668	3,213
1949	58,489	21,636	4,028	6,433	7,438	3,737	22,770	7,625	11,780	3,365	6,266	1,757	4,509	7,819	4,703	3,116
1950	59,648	22,373	4,490	6,429	7,632	3,822	23,336	7,670	12,146	3,520	6,535	1,883	4,652	7,408	4,393	3,015
1951	60,854	22,413	4,788	6,220	7,655	3,750	25,009	8,434	12,623	3,952	6,533	1,869	4,664	6,900	4,025	2,875
1952	60,989	23,070	5,092	6,182	8,122	3,674	24,802	8,743	12,352	3,707	6,488	1,805	4,683	6,632	3,963	2,669
1953 [2]	61,778	23,614	5,448	6,396	7,991	3,779	24,991	8,588	12,747	3,656	6,949	1,850	5,099	6,224	3,842	2,382
1954	61,160	23,891	5,588	6,201	8,168	3,934	24,167	8,311	12,253	3,603	6,755	1,760	4,995	6,348	3,853	2,495
1955	62,998	24,553	5,782	6,442	8,359	3,970	24,729	8,315	12,740	3,674	7,101	1,946	5,155	6,616	3,782	2,834
1956 [3]	64,928	25,597	6,096	6,552	8,838	4,111	25,179	8,693	12,816	3,670	7,609	2,124	5,485	6,544	3,655	2,889
1957	65,016	26,451	6,468	6,703	9,152	4,128	24,874	8,664	12,530	3,680	7,632	2,098	5,534	6,059	3,329	2,730
1958	63,966	27,056	6,961	6,785	9,137	4,173	23,510	8,469	11,441	3,600	7,809	2,204	5,605	5,591	3,083	2,508
1959	65,581	27,798	7,143	6,935	9,326	4,394	24,162	8,561	11,858	3,743	8,040	2,197	5,843	5,582	3,019	2,563
1960 [2]	66,681	28,726	7,475	7,067	9,783	4,401	24,211	8,560	11,986	3,665	8,349	2,216	6,133	5,395	2,780	2,615
1961	66,796	29,124	7,705	7,119	9,861	4,439	23,862	8,623	11,762	3,477	8,640	2,317	6,323	5,170	2,711	2,459
1962 [2]	67,846	29,901	8,040	7,408	10,107	4,346	24,278	8,678	12,041	3,559	8,802	2,341	6,461	4,866	2,595	2,271
1963	68,809	30,182	8,263	7,293	10,270	4,356	24,982	8,925	12,506	3,551	9,031	2,306	6,725	4,615	2,396	2,219
1964	70,357	31,125	8,550	7,452	10,667	4,456	25,534	8,986	12,924	3,624	9,256	2,322	6,934	4,444	2,320	2,124
1965	72,179	32,104	8,883	7,340	11,166	4,715	26,466	9,221	13,390	3,855	9,342	2,251	7,091	4,265	2,244	2,021
MALE																
1947	41,535	12,300	2,321	5,032	2,903	2,044	19,879	7,565	8,877	3,437	2,525	123	2,402	6,832	4,713	2,119
1948	42,457	13,091	2,465	5,461	2,911	2,254	20,253	7,924	8,944	3,385	2,588	148	2,440	6,527	4,404	2,123
1949	41,615	13,213	2,480	5,503	2,879	2,351	19,223	7,453	8,496	3,274	2,678	136	2,542	6,504	4,459	2,045
1950	42,156	13,549	2,696	5,439	3,035	2,379	19,727	7,482	8,810	3,435	2,685	125	2,560	6,196	4,154	2,042
1951	42,431	13,167	2,979	5,167	2,673	2,348	20,995	8,193	8,955	3,847	2,583	50	2,533	5,689	3,824	1,865
1952	42,334	13,444	3,187	5,178	2,808	2,271	20,803	8,480	8,731	3,592	2,559	56	2,503	5,530	3,771	1,759
1953 [2]	42,684	13,871	3,409	5,414	2,732	2,316	20,816	8,325	8,940	3,551	2,759	42	2,717	5,236	3,667	1,569
1954	42,420	14,081	3,546	5,250	2,830	2,455	20,404	8,073	8,839	3,492	2,638	41	2,597	5,299	3,730	1,569
1955	43,191	14,283	3,602	5,447	2,787	2,447	20,887	8,101	9,217	3,569	2,655	42	2,613	5,368	3,633	1,735
1956 [3]	44,157	14,775	3,859	5,532	2,898	2,486	21,320	8,457	9,280	3,583	2,810	45	2,765	5,252	3,478	1,774
1957	44,013	15,262	4,080	5,678	2,973	2,531	21,063	8,432	9,041	3,590	2,815	46	2,769	4,874	3,177	1,697
1958	43,042	15,679	4,420	5,751	2,919	2,580	19,996	8,244	8,252	3,500	2,790	53	2,737	4,584	2,960	1,624
1959	44,089	16,154	4,583	5,858	2,994	2,719	20,589	8,349	8,598	3,642	2,812	49	2,763	4,532	2,899	1,633
1960 [2]	44,485	16,596	4,768	5,967	3,154	2,707	20,573	8,338	8,652	3,583	2,918	45	2,873	4,398	2,670	1,728
1961	44,318	16,815	4,955	6,003	3,120	2,737	20,245	8,407	8,441	3,397	2,992	62	2,930	4,266	2,581	1,685
1962 [2]	44,802	17,241	5,175	6,276	3,144	2,646	20,588	8,455	8,664	3,469	3,059	60	2,999	4,003	2,463	1,540
1963	45,330	17,263	5,312	6,180	3,128	2,643	21,151	8,683	9,011	3,457	3,165	60	3,105	3,751	2,265	1,486
1964	46,139	17,701	5,438	6,342	3,214	2,707	21,546	8,736	9,276	3,534	3,269	63	3,206	3,620	2,187	1,433
1965	47,034	17,964	5,602	6,229	3,293	2,840	22,314	8,951	9,620	3,743	3,287	57	3,230	3,466	2,112	1,354
FEMALE																
1947	16,308	7,886	1,474	763	4,298	1,351	3,676	189	3,398	89	3,461	1,607	1,854	1,287	282	1,005
1948	16,851	8,310	1,512	883	4,528	1,387	3,736	195	3,452	89	3,452	1,606	1,846	1,354	264	1,090
1949	16,873	8,424	1,548	930	4,560	1,386	3,547	172	3,284	91	3,590	1,622	1,968	1,315	244	1,071
1950	17,493	8,824	1,794	990	4,597	1,443	3,608	188	3,336	84	3,850	1,758	2,092	1,212	239	973
1951	18,423	9,247	1,809	1,053	4,983	1,402	4,016	242	3,668	106	3,951	1,820	2,131	1,211	201	1,010
1952	18,655	9,626	1,905	1,004	5,314	1,403	3,999	263	3,621	115	3,929	1,749	2,180	1,102	192	910
1953 [2]	19,094	9,741	2,038	982	5,259	1,462	4,176	263	3,807	106	4,190	1,808	2,382	988	175	813
1954	18,740	9,811	2,042	951	5,339	1,479	3,766	239	3,415	112	4,116	1,718	2,398	1,049	123	926
1955	19,807	10,271	2,180	995	5,573	1,523	3,843	215	3,523	105	4,447	1,904	2,543	1,247	149	1,098
1956 [3]	20,771	10,823	2,238	1,020	5,940	1,625	3,859	236	3,536	87	4,800	2,080	2,720	1,291	176	1,115
1957	21,003	11,190	2,389	1,025	6,179	1,597	3,813	233	3,490	90	4,817	2,052	2,765	1,185	152	1,033
1958	20,924	11,385	2,541	1,034	6,218	1,592	3,514	225	3,189	100	5,018	2,151	2,867	1,007	123	884
1959	21,492	11,644	2,560	1,077	6,332	1,675	3,573	212	3,260	101	5,227	2,147	3,080	1,049	119	930
1960 [2]	22,196	12,129	2,706	1,099	6,629	1,695	3,637	222	3,333	82	5,431	2,171	3,260	998	111	887
1961	22,478	12,309	2,750	1,116	6,741	1,702	3,618	216	3,322	80	5,648	2,255	3,393	904	130	774
1962 [2]	22,954	12,659	2,865	1,132	6,963	1,699	3,690	223	3,377	90	5,743	2,281	3,462	863	132	731
1963	23,479	12,918	2,950	1,113	7,142	1,713	3,831	241	3,496	94	5,866	2,246	3,620	864	131	733
1964	24,218	13,421	3,110	1,109	7,453	1,749	3,990	250	3,649	91	5,988	2,259	3,729	821	132	689
1965	25,145	14,137	3,280	1,110	7,873	1,874	4,153	270	3,772	111	6,057	2,195	3,862	799	132	667

Footnotes at end of table.

Table A–10. Employed Persons, by Major Occupation Group and Sex: Annual Averages,[1] 1947–65—Continued

Sex and year	Total employed	White-collar workers					Blue-collar workers				Service workers			Farm workers		
		Total	Professional, technical, and kindred workers	Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm	Clerical and kindred workers	Sales workers	Total	Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	Operatives and kindred workers	Laborers, exc. farm and mine	Total	Private household workers	Service workers, exc. private household	Total	Farmers and farm managers	Farm laborers and foremen
	Percent distribution															
Both Sexes																
1947	100.0	34.9	6.6	10.0	12.4	5.9	40.7	13.4	21.2	6.1	10.4	3.0	7.4	14.0	8.6	5.4
1948	100.0	36.1	6.7	10.7	12.5	6.1	40.4	13.7	20.9	5.9	10.2	3.0	7.2	13.3	7.9	5.4
1949	100.0	37.0	6.9	11.0	12.7	6.4	38.9	13.0	20.1	5.8	10.7	3.0	7.7	13.3	8.0	5.3
1950	100.0	37.5	7.5	10.8	12.8	6.4	39.1	12.9	20.3	5.9	11.0	3.2	7.8	12.5	7.4	5.1
1951	100.0	36.8	7.9	10.2	12.6	6.2	41.1	13.9	20.7	6.5	10.8	3.1	7.7	11.3	6.6	4.7
1952	100.0	37.7	8.3	10.1	13.3	6.0	40.7	14.3	20.3	6.1	10.7	3.0	7.7	10.9	6.5	4.4
1953 [2]	100.0	38.2	8.8	10.4	12.9	6.1	40.4	13.9	20.6	5.9	11.3	3.0	8.3	10.1	6.2	3.9
1954	100.0	39.0	9.1	10.1	13.4	6.4	39.5	13.6	20.0	5.9	11.1	2.9	8.2	10.4	6.3	4.1
1955	100.0	39.0	9.2	10.2	13.3	6.3	39.3	13.2	20.2	5.8	11.3	3.1	8.2	10.5	6.0	4.5
1956 [3]	100.0	39.4	9.4	10.1	13.6	6.3	38.8	13.4	19.7	5.7	11.7	3.3	8.4	10.1	5.6	4.5
1957	100.0	40.6	9.9	10.3	14.1	6.3	38.3	13.3	19.3	5.7	11.7	3.2	8.5	9.3	5.1	4.2
1958	100.0	42.3	10.9	10.6	14.3	6.5	36.7	13.2	17.9	5.6	12.2	3.4	8.8	8.7	4.8	3.9
1959	100.0	42.4	10.9	10.6	14.2	6.7	36.9	13.1	18.1	5.7	12.2	3.4	8.9	8.5	4.6	3.9
1960 [2]	100.0	43.1	11.2	10.6	14.7	6.6	36.3	12.8	18.0	5.5	12.5	3.3	9.2	8.1	4.2	3.9
1961	100.0	43.6	11.5	10.7	14.8	6.6	35.7	12.9	17.6	5.2	12.9	3.5	9.5	7.8	4.1	3.7
1962 [2]	100.0	44.1	11.9	10.9	14.9	6.4	35.8	12.8	17.7	5.2	13.0	3.5	9.5	7.2	3.8	3.3
1963	100.0	43.9	12.0	10.6	14.9	6.3	36.3	13.0	18.2	5.2	13.1	3.4	9.8	6.7	3.5	3.2
1964	100.0	44.2	12.2	10.6	15.2	6.3	36.3	12.8	18.4	5.2	13.2	3.3	9.9	6.3	3.3	3.0
1965	100.0	44.5	12.3	10.2	15.5	6.5	36.7	12.8	18.6	5.3	12.9	3.1	9.8	5.9	3.1	2.8
Male																
1947	100.0	29.6	5.6	12.1	7.0	4.9	47.9	18.2	21.4	8.3	6.1	.3	5.8	16.4	11.3	5.1
1948	100.0	30.8	5.8	12.9	6.9	5.3	47.7	18.7	21.1	8.0	6.1	.3	5.7	15.4	10.4	5.0
1949	100.0	31.8	6.0	13.2	6.9	5.6	46.2	17.9	20.4	7.9	6.4	.3	6.1	15.6	10.7	4.9
1950	100.0	32.1	6.4	12.9	7.2	5.6	46.8	17.7	20.9	8.1	6.4	.3	6.1	14.7	9.9	4.8
1951	100.0	31.0	7.0	12.2	6.3	5.5	49.5	19.3	21.1	9.1	6.1	.1	6.0	13.4	9.0	4.4
1952	100.0	31.8	7.5	12.2	6.6	5.4	49.1	20.0	20.6	8.5	6.0	.1	5.9	13.1	8.9	4.2
1953 [2]	100.0	32.5	8.0	12.7	6.4	5.4	48.8	19.5	20.9	8.3	6.5	.1	6.4	12.3	8.6	3.7
1954	100.0	33.2	8.4	12.4	6.7	5.8	48.1	19.0	20.8	8.2	6.2	.1	6.1	12.5	8.8	3.7
1955	100.0	33.1	8.3	12.6	6.5	5.7	48.4	18.8	21.3	8.3	6.1	.1	6.0	12.4	8.4	4.0
1956 [3]	100.0	33.5	8.7	12.5	6.6	5.6	48.3	19.2	21.0	8.1	6.4	.1	6.3	11.9	7.9	4.0
1957	100.0	34.7	9.3	12.9	6.8	5.8	47.9	19.2	20.5	8.2	6.4	.1	6.3	11.1	7.2	3.9
1958	100.0	36.4	10.3	13.4	6.8	6.0	46.5	19.2	19.2	8.1	6.5	.1	6.4	10.6	6.9	3.8
1959	100.0	36.6	10.4	13.3	6.8	6.2	46.7	18.9	19.5	8.3	6.4	.1	6.3	10.3	6.6	3.7
1960 [2]	100.0	37.3	10.7	13.4	7.1	6.1	46.2	18.7	19.4	8.1	6.6	.1	6.5	9.9	6.0	3.9
1961	100.0	37.9	11.2	13.5	7.0	6.2	45.7	19.0	19.0	7.7	6.8	.1	6.6	9.6	5.8	3.8
1962 [2]	100.0	38.4	11.5	14.0	7.0	5.9	45.9	18.8	19.3	7.7	6.8	.1	6.7	8.9	5.5	3.4
1963	100.0	38.1	11.7	13.6	6.9	5.8	46.7	19.2	19.9	7.6	7.0	.1	6.8	8.3	5.0	3.3
1964	100.0	38.4	11.8	13.7	7.0	5.9	46.7	18.9	20.1	7.7	7.1	.1	6.9	7.8	4.7	3.1
1965	100.0	38.2	11.9	13.2	7.0	6.0	47.4	19.0	20.5	8.0	7.0	.1	6.9	7.4	4.5	2.9
Female																
1947	100.0	48.4	9.0	4.7	26.4	8.3	22.5	1.2	20.8	.5	21.2	9.9	11.4	7.9	1.7	6.5
1948	100.0	49.3	9.0	5.2	26.9	8.2	22.2	1.2	20.5	.5	20.5	9.5	11.0	8.0	1.6	6.5
1949	100.0	49.9	9.2	5.5	27.0	8.2	21.0	1.0	19.5	.5	21.3	9.6	11.7	7.8	1.4	6.3
1950	100.0	50.4	10.3	5.7	26.3	8.2	20.6	1.1	19.1	.5	22.0	10.0	12.0	6.9	1.4	5.6
1951	100.0	50.2	9.8	5.7	27.0	7.6	21.8	1.3	19.9	.6	21.4	9.9	11.6	6.6	1.1	5.5
1952	100.0	51.6	10.2	5.4	28.5	7.5	21.4	1.4	19.4	.6	21.1	9.4	11.7	5.9	1.0	4.9
1953 [2]	100.0	51.0	10.7	5.1	27.5	7.7	21.9	1.4	19.9	.6	21.9	9.5	12.5	5.2	.9	4.3
1954	100.0	52.4	10.9	5.1	28.5	7.9	20.1	1.3	18.2	.6	22.0	9.2	12.8	5.6	.7	4.9
1955	100.0	51.9	11.0	5.0	28.1	7.7	19.4	1.1	17.8	.5	22.5	9.6	12.8	6.3	.8	5.5
1956 [3]	100.0	52.1	10.8	4.9	28.6	7.8	18.6	1.1	17.0	.4	23.1	10.0	13.1	6.2	.8	5.4
1957	100.0	53.3	11.4	4.9	29.4	7.6	18.2	1.1	16.6	.4	22.9	9.8	13.2	5.6	.7	4.9
1958	100.0	54.4	12.1	4.9	29.7	7.6	16.8	1.1	15.2	.5	24.0	10.3	13.7	4.8	.6	4.2
1959	100.0	54.2	11.9	5.0	29.5	7.8	16.6	1.0	15.2	.5	24.3	10.0	14.3	4.9	.6	4.3
1960 [2]	100.0	54.6	12.2	5.0	29.9	7.6	16.4	1.0	15.0	.4	24.5	9.8	14.7	4.5	.5	4.0
1961	100.0	54.8	12.2	5.0	30.0	7.6	16.1	1.0	14.8	.4	25.1	10.0	15.1	4.0	.6	3.4
1962 [2]	100.0	55.1	12.5	4.9	30.3	7.4	16.1	1.0	14.7	.4	25.0	9.9	15.1	3.8	.6	3.2
1963	100.0	55.0	12.6	4.7	30.4	7.3	16.3	1.0	14.9	.4	25.0	9.6	15.4	3.7	.6	3.1
1964	100.0	55.4	12.8	4.6	30.8	7.2	16.5	1.0	15.1	.4	24.7	9.3	15.4	3.4	.5	2.8
1965	100.0	56.2	13.0	4.4	31.3	7.4	16.5	1.1	15.0	.4	24.1	8.7	15.4	3.2	.5	2.7

[1] Prior to 1958, averages are based on data for January, April, July, and October of each year.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[3] Data through 1956 have *not* been adjusted to reflect changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment adopted in January 1957. See footnote 3, table A–9.

Table A–11. Unemployed Persons and Unemployment Rates, by Sex and Color: Annual Averages, 1947–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over]

Year	Number unemployed (thousands)									Unemployment rate								
	Total	Male	Female	White			Nonwhite			Total	Male	Female	White			Nonwhite		
				Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female				Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1947	2,356	1,720	637	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	3.9	4.0	3.8	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
1948	2,325	1,590	735	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	3.8	3.6	4.1	3.6	3.4	3.9	5.9	5.7	6.1
1949	3,682	2,602	1,083	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	5.9	5.9	6.0	5.6	5.6	5.7	8.9	9.5	7.9
1950	3,351	2,280	1,073	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	5.3	5.1	5.8	4.9	4.7	5.4	9.1	9.4	8.5
1951	2,099	1,250	851	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	3.3	2.9	4.4	3.1	2.7	4.2	5.3	4.9	6.0
1952	1,932	1,217	715	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	3.1	2.8	3.7	2.8	2.6	3.4	5.4	5.2	5.7
1953 [3]	1,870	1,228	642	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	2.9	2.8	3.3	2.7	2.6	3.1	4.5	4.8	4.1
1954	3,578	2,372	1,207	2,895	1,937	958	681	435	247	5.6	5.3	6.1	5.0	4.8	5.6	9.8	10.2	9.3
1955	2,904	1,889	1,016	2,293	1,502	791	613	386	227	4.4	4.2	4.9	3.9	3.7	4.4	8.7	8.9	8.4
1956	2,822	1,757	1,067	2,215	1,402	813	609	355	254	4.2	3.8	4.9	3.7	3.4	4.3	8.4	8.0	9.0
1957	2,936	1,893	1,043	2,350	1,519	832	585	374	211	4.3	4.1	4.7	3.9	3.7	4.3	8.0	8.4	7.4
1958	4,681	3,155	1,526	3,744	2,536	1,208	937	619	318	6.8	6.8	6.8	6.1	6.1	6.2	12.6	13.7	10.8
1959	3,813	2,473	1,340	3,004	1,945	1,059	808	527	281	5.5	5.3	5.9	4.9	4.6	5.3	10.7	11.5	9.5
1960 [2]	3,931	2,541	1,390	3,127	2,032	1,095	803	508	295	5.6	5.4	5.9	5.0	4.8	5.3	10.2	10.7	9.5
1961	4,806	3,060	1,747	3,819	2,450	1,369	987	610	377	6.7	6.5	7.2	6.0	5.7	6.5	12.5	12.9	11.9
1962 [2]	4,007	2,488	1,519	3,129	1,969	1,160	879	519	360	5.6	5.3	6.2	4.9	4.6	5.5	11.0	11.0	11.1
1963	4,166	2,537	1,629	3,281	2,028	1,253	885	509	376	5.7	5.3	6.5	5.1	4.7	5.8	10.9	10.6	11.3
1964	3,876	2,271	1,605	3,064	1,829	1,235	812	443	369	5.2	4.7	6.2	4.6	4.2	5.5	9.8	9.1	10.8
1965	3,456	1,980	1,476	2,754	1,603	1,152	702	377	324	4.6	4.0	5.5	4.1	3.6	5.0	8.3	7.6	9.3

[1] Absolute numbers by color are not available prior to 1954 (see footnote 1, table A–3), and rates by color are not available for 1947.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

Table A–12. Unemployed Persons and Unemployment Rates, by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1947–65

Sex and year	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years				20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
		Total	14 and 15	16 and 17	18 and 19						
	Number unemployed (thousands)										
MALE											
1947	1,720	298	28	114	156	392	349	250	203	162	67
1948	1,590	286	31	112	143	324	289	233	201	178	81
1949	2,602	382	30	145	207	485	539	414	347	310	125
1950	2,280	356	41	139	179	377	467	348	327	286	117
1951	1,250	220	29	102	89	155	241	192	193	162	87
1952	1,217	237	32	116	89	155	233	192	182	145	73
1953 [1]	1,228	209	26	94	90	152	236	208	196	167	60
1954	2,372	338	28	142	168	327	517	431	372	275	112
1955	1,889	308	35	134	140	248	353	328	285	265	102
1956	1,757	315	46	134	135	240	348	278	270	216	90
1957	1,893	351	52	140	159	283	349	304	302	220	83
1958	3,155	473	57	185	231	478	685	552	492	349	124
1959	2,473	451	53	191	207	343	483	407	390	287	112
1960 [1]	2,541	480	55	200	225	369	492	415	392	294	96
1961	3,060	542	63	221	258	457	585	507	473	374	122
1962 [1]	2,488	472	65	187	220	381	446	405	381	300	103
1963	2,537	566	65	248	252	396	444	386	358	289	97
1964	2,271	553	66	257	230	384	345	323	319	262	85
1965	1,980	545	66	247	232	311	293	284	253	221	75
FEMALE											
1947	637	162	18	63	81	124	134	99	72	39	10
1948	735	170	18	66	86	132	169	113	90	49	12
1949	1,083	241	18	93	130	195	237	189	124	74	21
1950	1,073	220	24	87	108	184	235	182	151	82	20
1951	851	162	17	66	79	118	194	162	125	76	16
1952	715	157	17	64	76	113	156	133	92	50	13
1953 [1]	642	133	10	56	67	104	143	117	84	51	10
1954	1,207	210	19	79	112	177	276	249	176	99	20
1955	1,016	194	18	77	99	148	224	193	151	90	18
1956	1,067	236	28	97	112	155	206	198	159	95	19
1957	1,043	222	25	90	107	147	224	195	146	80	28
1958	1,526	284	22	114	148	223	308	319	239	122	31
1959	1,340	276	20	110	146	200	242	266	214	119	23
1960 [1]	1,390	310	24	124	162	214	260	256	222	101	25
1961	1,747	379	30	142	207	265	304	342	278	141	36
1962 [1]	1,519	344	31	124	189	255	267	283	223	111	37
1963	1,629	413	31	172	211	262	286	287	231	120	29
1964	1,605	409	24	179	207	276	262	281	223	122	33
1965	1,476	420	24	164	231	246	236	263	183	101	27
	Unemployment rate										
MALE											
1947	4.0	9.7	4.8	10.3	11.3	8.5	3.4	2.6	2.6	2.9	2.8
1948	3.6	9.0	5.4	10.1	9.6	6.9	2.8	2.4	2.5	3.1	3.4
1949	5.9	12.5	5.2	13.7	14.6	10.4	5.2	4.3	4.3	5.4	5.1
1950	5.1	11.4	6.6	13.3	12.3	8.1	4.4	3.6	4.0	4.9	4.8
1951	2.9	7.4	4.7	9.4	7.0	3.9	2.3	2.0	2.4	2.8	3.5
1952	2.8	8.2	5.5	10.5	7.4	4.6	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.4	3.0
1953 [1]	2.8	7.3	4.6	8.8	7.2	5.0	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.8	2.4
1954	5.3	11.8	4.9	13.9	13.2	10.7	4.8	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.4
1955	4.2	10.5	6.2	12.5	10.8	7.7	3.3	3.1	3.2	4.3	4.0
1956	3.8	10.2	6.9	11.7	10.4	6.9	3.3	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.5
1957	4.1	11.3	7.6	12.4	12.3	7.8	3.3	2.8	3.3	3.5	3.4
1958	6.8	15.2	8.4	16.3	17.8	12.7	6.5	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.2
1959	5.3	13.8	7.8	15.8	14.9	8.7	4.7	3.7	4.1	4.5	4.8
1960 [1]	5.4	14.0	8.6	15.5	15.0	8.9	4.8	3.8	4.1	4.6	4.2
1961	6.5	15.4	8.7	18.3	16.3	10.7	5.7	4.6	4.9	5.7	5.5
1962 [1]	5.3	13.3	8.3	15.9	13.8	8.9	4.5	3.6	3.9	4.6	4.6
1963	5.3	15.5	8.8	18.8	15.9	8.8	4.5	3.5	3.6	4.3	4.5
1964	4.7	14.5	9.0	17.1	14.6	8.1	3.5	2.9	3.2	3.9	4.0
1965	4.0	13.1	8.6	16.1	12.4	6.3	3.0	2.6	2.5	3.3	3.5
FEMALE											
1947	3.8	7.8	7.8	9.8	6.8	4.6	3.6	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.2
1948	4.2	8.2	7.3	9.8	7.4	4.9	4.3	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.3
1949	6.0	11.7	7.4	14.4	11.2	7.3	5.9	4.7	4.0	4.4	3.8
1950	5.8	11.1	9.0	14.2	9.8	6.9	5.7	4.4	4.5	4.5	3.4
1951	4.4	8.0	6.6	10.0	7.2	4.4	4.5	3.8	3.5	4.0	2.9
1952	3.7	7.9	7.0	9.1	7.3	4.5	3.6	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.2
1953 [1]	3.3	6.8	4.2	8.5	6.4	4.3	3.4	2.5	2.3	2.5	1.4
1954	6.1	10.9	7.5	12.7	10.5	7.3	6.6	5.3	4.6	4.6	3.0
1955	4.9	9.8	7.0	12.0	9.1	6.1	5.3	4.0	3.6	3.8	2.3
1956	4.9	10.8	8.9	13.2	9.9	6.3	4.8	3.9	3.6	3.6	2.3
1957	4.7	10.1	7.5	12.6	9.4	6.0	5.3	3.8	3.2	3.0	3.4
1958	6.8	13.1	6.6	16.6	12.9	8.9	7.3	6.2	4.9	4.5	3.8
1959	5.9	12.3	5.7	14.4	12.9	8.1	5.9	5.1	4.2	4.1	2.8
1960 [1]	5.9	12.9	6.9	15.4	13.0	8.3	6.3	4.8	4.2	3.4	2.8
1961	7.2	14.8	7.2	18.3	15.1	9.8	7.3	6.3	5.1	4.5	3.9
1962 [1]	6.2	13.2	6.7	16.8	13.5	9.1	6.5	5.2	4.1	3.5	4.1
1963	6.5	15.7	7.6	20.3	15.2	8.9	6.9	5.1	4.2	3.6	3.2
1964	6.2	15.0	5.9	18.8	15.1	8.6	6.3	5.0	3.9	3.5	3.4
1965	5.5	14.3	5.7	17.2	14.8	7.3	5.5	4.6	3.2	2.8	2.8

[1] See footnote 1, table A–1.

Table A–13. Unemployment Rates, by Color, Sex, and Age: Annual Averages, 1948–65

Item	Total, 14 years and over	14 to 19 years				20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
		Total	14 and 15	16 and 17	18 and 19						
WHITE											
Male											
1948	3.4	9.0	5.9	10.2	9.4	6.4	2.6	2.1	2.4	3.0	3.3
1949	5.6	12.2	5.1	13.4	14.2	9.8	4.9	3.9	4.0	5.3	5.0
1950	4.7	11.0	5.8	13.4	11.7	7.7	3.9	3.2	3.7	4.7	4.6
1951	2.7	7.3	4.7	9.5	6.7	3.6	2.0	1.8	2.2	2.7	3.1
1952	2.6	8.2	5.5	10.9	7.0	4.3	1.9	1.7	2.0	2.3	2.9
1953 [1]	2.6	7.2	4.6	8.9	7.1	4.5	2.0	1.8	2.0	2.7	2.3
1954	4.8	11.7	4.9	14.0	13.0	9.8	4.2	3.6	3.8	4.3	4.2
1955	3.7	10.0	5.1	12.2	10.4	7.0	2.7	2.6	2.9	3.9	3.8
1956	3.4	9.5	6.1	11.2	9.7	6.1	2.8	2.2	2.8	3.1	3.4
1957	3.7	10.5	6.8	11.9	11.2	7.1	2.7	2.5	3.0	3.4	3.2
1958	6.1	14.0	7.9	14.9	16.5	11.7	5.6	4.4	4.8	5.2	5.0
1959	4.6	12.5	7.2	15.0	13.0	7.5	3.8	3.2	3.7	4.2	4.5
1960 [1]	4.8	12.9	8.1	14.6	13.5	8.3	4.1	3.3	3.6	4.1	4.0
1961	5.7	14.1	8.0	16.5	15.1	10.0	4.9	4.0	4.4	5.3	5.2
1962 [1]	4.6	12.3	7.6	15.1	12.7	8.0	3.8	3.1	3.5	4.1	4.1
1963	4.7	14.2	7.9	17.8	14.2	7.8	3.9	2.9	3.3	4.0	4.1
1964	4.2	13.4	7.7	16.1	13.4	7.4	3.0	2.5	2.9	3.5	3.6
1965	3.6	11.8	7.1	14.7	11.4	5.9	2.6	2.3	2.3	3.1	3.4
Female											
1948	3.9	7.8	7.6	9.7	6.8	4.2	3.8	2.9	3.1	3.2	2.4
1949	5.7	11.3	7.5	13.6	10.7	6.7	5.5	4.5	4.0	4.3	4.1
1950	5.4	10.6	8.0	13.8	9.4	6.1	5.2	4.0	4.3	4.4	3.1
1951	4.2	7.6	7.1	9.6	6.5	3.9	4.1	3.5	3.6	4.0	3.3
1952	3.4	7.4	7.6	9.3	6.2	3.8	3.2	2.8	2.4	2.5	2.3
1953 [1]	3.1	6.6	4.0	8.3	6.0	4.1	3.1	2.3	2.3	2.5	1.4
1954	5.6	9.9	6.8	12.0	9.4	6.4	5.7	4.9	4.4	4.5	2.8
1955	4.4	8.9	7.1	11.6	7.7	5.1	4.3	3.8	3.4	3.6	2.2
1956	4.3	9.4	7.8	12.1	8.3	5.1	4.0	3.5	3.3	3.5	2.3
1957	4.3	9.1	6.8	11.9	7.9	5.1	4.7	3.7	3.0	3.0	3.5
1958	6.2	11.6	5.8	15.6	11.0	7.4	6.6	5.6	4.9	4.3	3.5
1959	5.3	10.6	5.2	13.3	11.1	6.7	5.0	4.7	4.0	4.0	3.4
1960 [1]	5.3	11.9	6.3	14.5	11.5	7.2	5.7	4.2	4.0	3.3	2.8
1961	6.5	13.5	6.6	17.0	13.6	8.4	6.6	5.6	4.8	4.3	3.7
1962 [1]	5.5	11.5	5.6	15.6	11.3	7.7	5.4	4.5	3.7	3.4	4.0
1963	5.8	13.6	5.9	18.1	13.2	7.4	5.8	4.6	3.9	3.5	3.0
1964	5.5	13.2	4.1	17.1	13.2	7.1	5.2	4.5	3.6	3.5	3.4
1965	5.0	12.6	4.4	15.0	13.4	6.3	4.8	4.1	3.0	2.7	2.7
NONWHITE											
Male											
1948	5.7	8.6	3.2	9.4	10.5	11.7	4.7	5.2	3.7	3.5	4.6
1949	9.5	14.7	6.1	15.8	17.1	15.8	8.5	8.1	7.9	7.0	6.2
1950	9.4	14.2	10.8	12.1	17.7	12.6	10.0	7.9	7.4	8.0	7.0
1951	4.9	8.2	4.9	8.7	9.6	6.7	5.5	3.4	3.6	4.1	4.7
1952	5.2	8.3	5.5	8.0	10.0	7.9	5.5	4.4	4.2	3.7	4.7
1953 [1]	4.8	7.6	5.1	8.3	8.1	8.1	4.3	3.6	5.1	3.6	3.1
1954	10.2	12.5	5.1	13.4	14.7	16.9	10.1	9.0	9.3	7.5	7.5
1955	8.9	13.5	12.7	14.8	12.9	12.4	8.6	8.2	6.4	9.0	7.1
1956	8.0	14.8	13.0	15.7	14.9	12.0	7.6	6.6	5.4	8.1	4.9
1957	8.4	17.5	14.1	16.3	20.0	12.7	8.5	6.4	6.2	5.5	5.9
1958	13.7	24.3	13.0	27.1	26.7	19.5	14.7	11.4	10.3	10.1	9.0
1959	11.5	22.8	12.7	22.3	27.2	16.3	12.3	8.9	7.9	8.7	8.4
1960 [1]	10.7	22.0	13.3	22.7	25.1	13.1	10.7	8.2	8.5	9.5	6.3
1961	12.9	24.7	14.3	31.0	23.9	15.3	12.9	10.7	10.2	10.5	9.4
1962 [1]	11.0	20.7	15.2	21.9	21.8	14.6	10.5	8.6	8.3	9.6	11.9
1963	10.6	25.4	16.9	27.0	27.4	15.5	9.5	8.0	7.1	7.4	10.1
1964	9.1	23.3	19.1	25.9	23.1	12.6	7.7	6.2	5.9	8.1	8.3
1965	7.6	22.6	20.3	27.1	20.2	9.3	6.2	5.1	5.1	5.4	5.2
Female											
1948	6.1	11.8	(2)	11.8	14.6	10.2	7.3	4.0	2.9	3.0	1.6
1949	7.9	15.2	(2)	20.3	15.9	12.5	8.5	6.2	4.0	5.4	1.6
1950	8.5	14.9	(2)	17.6	14.1	13.0	9.1	6.6	5.9	4.8	5.7
1951	6.0	11.7	(2)	13.0	15.1	8.8	7.1	5.6	2.8	3.4	1.6
1952	5.7	11.8	(2)	6.3	16.8	10.7	6.2	4.0	3.5	2.4	1.5
1953 [1]	4.1	8.5	(2)	10.3	9.9	5.5	4.9	3.5	2.1	2.1	1.6
1954	9.3	18.4	(2)	19.1	21.6	13.2	10.9	7.3	5.9	4.9	5.1
1955	8.4	17.1	(2)	15.4	21.4	13.0	10.2	5.5	5.2	5.5	3.3
1956	9.0	21.6	(2)	22.0	23.4	14.8	9.1	6.8	5.6	5.3	2.8
1957	7.4	18.9	(2)	18.3	21.3	12.2	8.1	4.7	4.2	4.0	4.3
1958	10.8	26.2	(2)	25.4	30.0	18.9	11.1	9.2	4.9	6.2	5.6
1959	9.5	24.9	(2)	25.8	29.9	14.9	9.7	7.6	6.1	5.0	2.3
1960 [1]	9.5	22.7	(2)	25.7	24.5	15.3	9.1	8.6	5.7	4.3	4.1
1961	11.9	26.6	(2)	31.1	28.2	19.5	11.1	10.7	7.4	6.3	6.8
1962 [1]	11.1	28.2	(2)	27.8	31.2	18.2	11.5	8.9	7.1	3.6	3.7
1963	11.3	33.1	(2)	40.1	31.9	18.7	11.7	8.2	6.1	4.8	3.6
1964	10.8	30.6	(2)	36.5	29.2	18.3	11.2	7.8	6.1	3.8	2.2
1965	9.3	29.8	(2)	37.8	27.8	13.7	8.4	7.6	4.4	3.9	3.1

[1] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[2] Rate not shown where base is less than 50,000.

Table A–14. Unemployment Rates, by Sex and Marital Status: Annual Averages, 1955–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over]

Year	Both sexes	Male				Female			
		Total	Single	Married, wife present	Widowed, divorced, separated	Total	Single	Married, husband present	Widowed, divorced, separated
1955 [1]	4.0	3.9	8.6	2.6	7.1	4.3	5.0	3.7	5.0
1956 [2]	3.8	3.5	7.7	2.3	6.2	4.3	5.3	3.6	5.0
1957	4.3	4.1	9.2	2.8	6.8	4.7	5.6	4.3	4.7
1958	6.8	6.8	13.3	5.1	11.2	6.8	7.4	6.5	6.7
1959	5.5	5.3	11.6	3.6	8.6	5.9	7.1	5.2	6.2
1960 [3]	5.6	5.4	11.7	3.7	8.4	5.9	7.5	5.2	5.9
1961	6.7	6.5	13.1	4.6	10.3	7.2	8.7	6.4	7.4
1962 [3]	5.6	5.3	11.2	3.6	9.9	6.2	7.9	5.4	6.4
1963	5.7	5.3	12.4	3.4	9.6	6.5	8.9	5.4	6.7
1964	5.2	4.7	11.5	2.8	8.9	6.2	8.7	5.1	6.4
1965	4.6	4.0	10.1	2.4	7.2	5.5	8.2	4.5	5.4

[1] Annual averages not available prior to 1955; for data for one month of each year, see table B–1.

[2] Data through 1956 have *not* been adjusted to reflect changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment adopted in January 1957. See footnote 3, table A–9.

[3] See footnote 1, table A–1.

Table A–15. Unemployment Rates and Percent Distribution of the Unemployed, by Major Industry Group: Annual Averages, 1948–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over]

Year	Total unemployed [1]	Experienced wage and salary workers												
		Total	Agriculture	Nonagricultural industries										
				Total	Mining, forestry, fisheries	Construction	Manufacturing			Transportation and public utilities	Wholesale and retail trade	Finance, insurance, real estate	Service industries	Public administration
							Total	Durable goods	Nondurable goods					
	Unemployment rate													
1948	3.4	3.7	4.7	3.7	2.9	7.6	3.5	3.4	3.6	3.0	4.3	1.6	3.5	2.0
1949	5.5	6.2	6.5	6.2	8.5	11.9	7.2	7.4	6.9	5.2	5.8	1.8	5.1	2.9
1950	5.0	5.6	8.2	5.4	6.6	10.7	5.6	5.2	6.0	4.1	5.8	2.0	5.0	2.8
1951	3.0	3.2	3.9	3.2	3.8	6.0	3.3	2.6	4.0	1.9	3.7	1.3	3.1	1.6
1952	2.7	2.9	3.9	2.8	3.4	5.5	2.8	2.4	3.3	1.9	3.1	1.5	2.6	1.1
1953 [2]	2.5	2.7	4.7	2.6	4.9	6.1	2.5	2.0	3.1	1.8	3.0	1.6	2.4	1.2
1954	5.0	5.5	8.0	5.4	12.3	10.5	6.1	6.5	5.7	4.8	5.2	2.0	4.0	2.0
1955	4.0	4.3	6.4	4.2	8.2	9.2	4.2	4.0	4.4	3.5	4.3	2.1	3.8	1.8
1956 [3]	3.8	3.9	6.5	3.8	6.4	8.3	4.2	4.0	4.4	2.4	4.1	1.4	3.2	1.6
1957	4.3	4.5	6.7	4.5	6.3	9.8	5.0	4.9	5.3	3.1	4.5	1.8	3.4	2.0
1958	6.8	7.2	9.9	7.1	10.6	13.7	9.2	10.5	7.6	5.6	6.7	2.9	4.6	3.0
1959	5.5	5.6	8.7	5.5	9.7	12.0	6.0	6.1	5.9	4.2	5.8	2.6	4.3	2.3
1960 [3]	5.6	5.7	8.0	5.6	9.5	12.2	6.2	6.3	6.0	4.3	5.9	2.4	4.1	2.6
1961	6.7	6.8	9.3	6.7	11.6	14.1	7.7	8.4	6.7	5.1	7.2	3.3	4.9	2.7
1962 [3]	5.6	5.5	7.3	5.5	8.6	12.0	5.8	5.7	5.9	3.9	6.3	3.1	4.3	2.2
1963	5.7	5.5	8.9	5.4	7.5	11.9	5.7	5.4	6.0	3.9	6.2	2.7	4.4	2.5
1964	5.2	5.0	9.3	4.8	7.6	9.9	4.9	4.7	5.3	3.3	5.7	2.5	4.1	2.3
1965	4.6	4.2	7.3	4.2	5.5	9.0	4.0	3.4	4.6	2.7	5.0	2.3	3.8	1.9
	Percent distribution													
1948	100.0	87.7	4.2	83.5	1.4	10.7	28.0	14.3	13.6	6.8	18.8	1.3	13.9	2.7
1949	100.0	89.6	3.7	85.9	2.2	10.9	33.3	17.8	15.4	7.2	16.2	.9	12.9	2.4
1950	100.0	89.1	4.9	84.2	2.0	11.0	28.8	13.9	14.9	5.9	17.9	1.1	14.9	2.6
1951	100.0	87.8	3.6	84.3	2.0	10.8	29.3	12.5	16.8	4.7	18.6	1.3	15.1	2.4
1952	100.0	87.7	3.7	84.0	2.0	12.1	28.3	13.3	15.1	5.3	18.0	1.7	14.5	2.1
1953 [2]	100.0	88.6	4.5	84.1	2.7	12.9	27.0	13.1	13.9	5.3	17.9	1.9	14.1	2.2
1954	100.0	89.8	3.9	85.9	3.1	11.4	33.3	20.0	13.3	6.7	16.0	1.2	12.4	1.8
1955	100.0	88.0	4.4	83.6	2.5	12.5	27.5	15.0	12.5	6.0	16.3	1.7	15.0	2.0
1956 [3]	100.0	85.8	4.6	81.2	2.1	11.8	29.0	16.1	12.9	4.5	16.6	1.2	14.2	1.9
1957	100.0	87.2	4.2	83.0	1.7	12.5	30.8	17.2	13.6	5.0	15.9	1.5	13.6	2.1
1958	100.0	87.8	3.9	83.9	1.7	11.6	34.4	22.2	12.2	5.4	15.2	1.5	12.1	2.0
1959	100.0	85.6	4.2	81.4	1.8	12.6	27.8	16.1	11.6	5.0	16.3	1.7	14.3	1.9
1960 [2]	100.0	85.3	4.1	81.2	1.7	12.3	28.2	16.0	12.2	5.2	16.3	1.7	13.6	2.2
1961	100.0	84.9	3.7	81.2	1.6	11.7	28.8	17.4	11.3	4.9	16.4	1.9	13.9	1.9
1962 [2]	100.0	83.9	3.3	80.6	1.4	12.1	26.2	14.4	11.8	4.4	17.1	2.1	13.3	1.9
1963	100.0	82.5	3.9	78.5	1.2	11.4	25.6	13.8	11.8	4.3	16.7	1.9	13.2	2.2
1964	100.0	81.4	4.2	77.2	1.3	10.5	24.4	12.9	11.5	3.9	16.9	2.0	13.0	2.2
1965	100.0	79.5	3.4	76.1	1.0	10.9	22.5	11.1	11.4	3.7	17.1	2.1	13.8	2.1

[1] Also includes the self-employed, unpaid family workers, and those with no previous work experience, not shown separately.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[3] Data through 1956 have *not* been adjusted to reflect changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment adopted in January 1957. See footnote 3, table A–9.

Table A–16. Unemployment Rates and Percent Distribution of the Unemployed, by Major Occupation Group: Annual Averages,[1] 1947–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over]

Year	Total unemployed	Experienced workers											Persons with no previous work experience[2]
		Professional, technical, and kindred workers	Farmers and farm managers	Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm	Clerical and kindred workers	Sales workers	Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	Operatives and kindred workers	Private household workers	Service workers, exc. private household	Farm laborers and foremen	Laborers, exc. farm and mine	
	Unemployment rate												
1947	3.6	1.9	0.2	1.2	2.9	2.6	3.8	5.1	3.4	4.7	2.7	7.5	----
1948	3.4	1.7	.2	1.0	2.3	3.4	2.9	4.1	3.2	4.8	2.3	7.5	----
1949	5.5	1.9	.2	1.5	3.8	3.5	5.9	8.0	5.2	6.1	3.9	12.9	----
1950	5.0	2.2	.3	1.6	3.4	4.0	5.6	6.8	5.6	6.8	5.0	11.7	----
1951	3.0	1.5	.3	1.0	2.1	2.8	2.6	4.3	3.8	4.3	2.1	5.6	----
1952	2.7	1.0	.2	.7	1.8	2.5	2.4	3.9	3.2	3.7	2.3	5.7	----
1953[3]	2.5	.9	.2	.9	1.7	2.1	2.6	3.2	2.5	3.6	2.5	6.1	----
1954	5.0	1.6	.4	1.2	3.1	3.7	4.9	7.6	5.0	5.2	4.2	10.7	----
1955	4.0	1.0	.4	.9	2.6	2.4	4.0	5.7	4.1	5.8	3.7	10.2	----
1956[4]	3.8	1.0	.4	.8	2.4	2.7	3.2	5.4	4.2	4.8	3.7	8.2	----
1957	4.3	1.2	.3	1.0	2.8	2.6	3.8	6.3	3.7	5.1	3.7	9.4	----
1958	6.8	2.0	.6	1.7	4.4	4.0	6.8	10.9	5.2	7.4	6.2	14.9	----
1959	5.5	1.7	.3	1.3	3.7	3.7	5.3	7.6	4.8	6.4	5.1	12.4	----
1960[3]	5.6	1.7	.3	1.4	3.8	3.7	5.3	8.0	4.9	6.0	5.2	12.5	----
1961	6.7	2.0	.4	1.8	4.6	4.7	6.3	9.6	5.9	7.4	5.7	14.5	----
1962[3]	5.6	1.7	.3	1.5	3.9	4.1	5.1	7.5	4.9	6.4	4.3	12.4	----
1963	5.7	1.8	.5	1.5	4.0	4.2	4.8	7.4	5.2	6.2	5.5	12.1	----
1964	5.2	1.7	.5	1.4	3.7	3.4	4.2	6.5	4.9	6.1	5.8	10.6	----
1965	4.6	1.5	.4	1.1	3.2	3.3	3.6	5.5	4.2	5.5	4.8	8.4	----
	Percent distribution												
1947	100.0	3.2	0.4	3.1	9.5	4.0	13.5	28.9	2.6	9.1	3.8	12.5	9.4
1948	100.0	3.4	.4	3.3	8.6	6.3	12.0	26.0	2.9	10.7	3.8	14.0	8.8
1949	100.0	2.3	.3	2.9	8.8	4.0	14.4	30.5	2.9	8.8	3.8	14.6	6.6
1950	100.0	3.1	.5	3.2	8.2	4.9	13.8	26.9	3.4	10.3	4.8	14.2	6.8
1951	100.0	3.8	.6	3.2	8.7	5.7	11.5	29.1	3.8	10.9	3.2	12.2	7.3
1952	100.0	3.1	.5	2.4	8.5	5.4	12.5	28.8	3.4	10.4	3.6	13.1	8.3
1953[3]	100.0	3.0	.6	3.8	8.5	5.2	14.5	26.5	3.0	12.0	3.8	14.8	4.4
1954	100.0	2.8	.5	2.5	8.2	4.8	13.5	32.1	2.9	8.7	3.4	13.7	7.0
1955	100.0	2.2	.5	2.2	8.0	3.6	12.8	28.2	3.1	11.7	4.0	15.3	8.4
1956[4]	100.0	2.4	.5	2.0	8.6	4.5	11.3	28.5	3.6	10.9	4.4	12.8	10.4
1957	100.0	2.7	.3	2.3	9.2	3.8	12.0	29.4	2.8	10.2	3.7	13.3	10.3
1958	100.0	2.9	.4	2.6	9.0	3.7	13.2	30.0	2.6	9.5	3.5	13.5	9.3
1959	100.0	3.2	.2	2.4	9.3	4.4	12.5	25.5	2.9	10.5	3.6	13.9	11.6
1960[3]	100.0	3.4	.2	2.5	9.8	4.2	12.1	26.5	2.9	9.9	3.6	13.3	11.6
1961	100.0	3.3	.2	2.8	9.9	4.6	12.1	26.0	3.0	10.5	3.1	12.2	12.2
1962[3]	100.0	3.5	.2	2.8	10.4	4.6	11.5	24.4	3.0	11.1	2.6	12.5	13.4
1963	100.0	3.7	.3	2.6	10.4	4.5	10.9	24.1	3.0	10.8	3.1	11.8	14.8
1964	100.0	3.9	.3	2.7	10.6	4.0	10.1	23.3	3.1	11.6	3.4	11.0	16.0
1965	100.0	3.8	.3	2.4	10.8	4.7	9.9	22.4	2.9	11.9	3.0	10.2	17.7

[1] See footnote 1, table A–10.
[2] Unemployed persons who never held a full-time civilian job.
[3] See footnote 1, table A–1.
[4] Data through 1956 have *not* been adjusted to reflect changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment adopted in January 1957. See footnote 3, table A–9.

Table A–17. Unemployed Persons and Percent Distribution of the Unemployed, by Duration of Unemployment: Annual Averages, 1947–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over]

Year	Total	Less than 5 weeks	5 and 6 weeks	7 to 10 weeks	11 to 14 weeks	15 weeks and over		
						Total	15 to 26 weeks	27 weeks and over
	Number unemployed (thousands)							
1947	2,356	1,255	203	308	193	398	234	164
1948	2,325	1,349	208	297	164	309	193	116
1949	3,682	1,804	309	555	331	683	427	256
1950	3,351	1,515	275	479	301	782	425	357
1951	2,099	1,223	169	252	153	303	166	137
1952	1,931	1,183	168	223	126	232	148	84
1953 [1]	1,870	1,178	149	209	124	211	132	79
1954	3,578	1,651	306	504	305	812	495	317
1955	2,903	1,387	230	368	217	703	367	336
1956	2,822	1,485	234	360	211	533	301	232
1957	2,936	1,485	258	392	240	560	321	239
1958	4,681	1,833	363	596	438	1,452	785	667
1959	3,813	1,658	304	474	335	1,040	469	571
1960 [1]	3,931	1,798	324	499	353	956	502	454
1961	4,806	1,897	377	587	411	1,532	728	804
1962 [1]	4,007	1,754	334	478	323	1,119	534	585
1963	4,166	1,847	358	519	354	1,088	535	553
1964	3,876	1,787	314	483	319	973	490	482
1965	3,456	1,718	286	422	276	755	404	351
	Percent distribution							
1947	100.0	53.3	8.6	13.1	8.2	16.9	9.9	7.0
1948	100.0	58.0	8.9	12.8	7.1	13.3	8.3	5.0
1949	100.0	49.0	8.4	15.1	9.0	18.5	11.6	7.0
1950	100.0	45.2	8.2	14.3	9.0	23.3	12.7	10.7
1951	100.0	58.3	8.1	12.0	7.3	14.4	7.9	6.5
1952	100.0	61.3	8.7	11.5	6.5	12.0	7.7	4.4
1953 [1]	100.0	63.0	8.0	11.2	6.6	11.3	7.1	4.2
1954	100.0	46.1	8.6	14.1	8.5	22.7	13.8	8.9
1955	100.0	47.8	7.9	12.7	7.5	24.2	12.6	11.6
1956	100.0	52.6	8.3	12.8	7.5	18.9	10.7	8.2
1957	100.0	50.6	8.8	13.4	8.2	19.1	10.9	8.1
1958	100.0	39.2	7.8	12.7	9.4	31.0	16.8	14.2
1959	100.0	43.5	8.0	12.4	8.8	27.3	12.3	15.0
1960 [1]	100.0	45.7	8.2	12.7	9.0	24.3	12.8	11.5
1961	100.0	39.5	7.8	12.2	8.6	31.9	15.1	16.7
1962 [1]	100.0	43.8	8.3	11.9	8.1	27.9	13.3	14.6
1963	100.0	44.3	8.6	12.5	8.5	26.1	12.8	13.3
1964	100.0	46.1	8.1	12.5	8.2	25.1	12.6	12.4
1965	100.0	49.7	8.3	12.2	8.0	21.8	11.7	10.2

[1] See footnote 1, table A–1.

Table A–18. Long-Term Unemployment Compared with Total Unemployment, by Sex, Age, and Color: Annual Averages, 1957–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over; numbers in thousands]

Item	1965	1964	1963	1962 [1]	1961	1960 [1]	1959	1958	1957
	Total unemployed								
Total: Number	3,456	3,876	4,166	4,007	4,806	3,931	3,813	4,681	2,936
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
SEX AND AGE									
Male	57.3	58.6	60.9	62.1	63.7	64.6	64.9	67.4	64.5
14 to 19 years	15.8	14.3	13.6	11.8	11.3	12.2	11.8	10.1	12.0
14 to 17	9.1	8.3	7.5	6.3	5.9	6.5	6.4	5.2	6.5
18 and 19	6.7	5.9	6.1	5.5	5.4	5.7	5.4	4.9	5.4
20 to 24 years	9.0	9.9	9.5	9.5	9.5	9.4	9.0	10.2	9.6
25 to 44 years	16.7	17.2	19.9	21.2	22.7	23.1	23.3	26.4	22.3
45 to 64 years	13.7	15.0	15.5	17.0	17.6	17.5	17.8	18.0	17.8
65 years and over	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.9	2.7	2.8
Female	42.7	41.4	39.1	37.9	36.3	35.4	35.1	32.6	35.5
14 to 19 years	12.1	10.6	9.9	8.6	7.9	7.9	7.2	6.1	7.6
14 to 17	5.4	5.2	4.9	3.9	3.6	3.8	3.4	2.9	3.9
18 and 19	6.7	5.3	5.1	4.7	4.3	4.1	3.8	3.2	3.6
20 to 24 years	7.1	7.1	6.3	6.4	5.5	5.5	5.2	4.8	5.0
25 to 44 years	14.4	14.0	13.8	13.7	13.4	13.1	13.3	13.4	14.3
45 to 64 years	8.2	8.9	8.4	8.3	8.7	8.2	8.7	7.7	7.7
65 years and over	.8	.9	.7	.9	.7	.6	.6	.7	1.0
COLOR AND SEX									
White	79.7	79.1	78.8	78.1	79.5	79.6	78.8	80.0	80.1
Male	46.4	47.2	48.7	49.1	51.0	51.7	51.0	54.2	51.8
Female	33.3	31.9	30.1	28.9	28.5	27.9	27.8	25.8	28.3
Nonwhite	20.3	20.9	21.2	21.9	20.5	20.4	21.2	20.0	19.9
Male	10.9	11.4	12.2	12.9	12.7	12.9	13.8	13.2	12.7
Female	9.4	9.5	9.0	9.0	7.8	7.5	7.4	6.8	7.2
	Unemployed 15 weeks and over								
Total: Number	755	973	1,088	1,119	1,532	956	1,040	1,452	560
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
SEX AND AGE									
Male	60.8	62.3	65.7	67.4	69.3	69.5	71.0	72.7	65.9
14 to 19 years	10.6	9.8	9.7	8.1	7.8	8.7	8.8	7.3	8.2
14 to 17	5.6	5.6	4.3	3.7	3.3	4.2	4.4	3.2	4.1
18 and 19	4.9	4.2	5.3	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.4	4.1	4.1
20 to 24 years	6.8	7.6	8.1	8.4	9.2	8.6	8.5	9.5	7.6
25 to 44 years	18.3	17.9	21.2	22.2	25.0	24.0	26.4	29.0	22.0
45 to 64 years	21.1	22.9	22.6	24.2	22.8	24.3	22.9	22.7	25.7
65 years and over	4.1	4.1	4.1	4.6	4.5	3.9	4.4	3.9	5.7
Female	39.2	37.7	34.3	32.6	30.7	30.5	29.0	27.3	31.1
14 to 19 years	8.2	6.1	5.6	4.9	3.9	4.3	3.5	2.9	4.3
14 to 17	3.1	2.5	2.3	1.8	1.2	1.7	1.2	1.0	1.6
18 and 19	5.2	3.6	3.3	3.1	2.7	2.6	2.3	1.9	2.7
20 to 24 years	4.9	5.9	4.3	4.2	4.3	4.7	4.0	3.4	3.4
25 to 44 years	14.0	13.9	13.2	13.0	12.3	12.0	11.1	12.8	13.2
45 to 64 years	10.7	10.4	10.2	9.3	9.3	8.6	9.8	7.5	9.3
65 years and over	1.3	1.4	.9	1.2	.9	.8	.6	.7	1.1
COLOR AND SEX									
White	77.0	77.1	74.0	74.1	77.5	75.1	75.7	78.0	77.4
Male	47.9	49.2	49.4	50.7	53.9	52.4	53.4	56.7	53.0
Female	29.2	27.9	24.6	23.4	23.6	22.7	22.4	21.3	24.4
Nonwhite	22.9	22.9	26.0	25.9	22.5	24.9	24.3	22.0	22.6
Male	13.0	13.3	16.4	16.7	15.3	17.1	17.9	16.0	15.8
Female	9.9	9.7	9.7	9.2	7.2	7.8	6.4	6.0	6.8

Footnote at end of table.

Table A–18. Long-Term Unemployment Compared with Total Unemployment, by Sex, Age, and Color: Annual Averages, 1957–65—Continued

Item	1965	1964	1963	1962 [1]	1961	1960 [1]	1959	1958	1957
	Unemployed 27 weeks and over								
Total: Number	351	422	553	585	804	454	571	667	239
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
SEX AND AGE									
Male	65.0	64.8	69.3	69.8	70.7	72.2	72.6	73.6	70.7
14 to 19 years	9.1	8.8	9.0	7.3	6.5	7.3	7.5	6.3	6.3
14 to 17	5.1	4.7	3.8	3.4	2.4	3.5	3.5	2.7	3.3
18 and 19	4.0	3.9	5.2	3.9	4.0	3.7	3.8	3.6	3.0
20 to 24 years	6.6	6.4	7.8	7.7	8.1	7.7	7.8	9.6	5.9
25 to 44 years	19.1	16.0	20.4	23.0	24.8	24.2	27.8	28.2	21.8
45 to 64 years	25.1	28.0	26.4	26.6	25.9	27.4	24.8	24.2	29.7
65 years and over	5.1	5.6	5.6	5.3	5.6	5.6	4.7	5.3	7.5
Female	35.0	35.2	30.7	30.2	29.3	27.8	27.4	26.4	29.3
14 to 19 years	5.1	4.9	4.2	4.1	3.1	3.1	2.6	2.3	3.4
14 to 17	2.0	2.1	1.8	1.2	.7	1.0	.7	.9	.8
18 and 19	3.1	2.9	2.4	2.9	2.4	2.0	1.9	1.4	2.5
20 to 24 years	4.0	5.6	4.0	3.7	3.6	4.4	3.7	3.2	2.1
25 to 44 years	13.7	12.1	11.4	11.8	12.0	10.8	10.0	12.2	12.6
45 to 64 years	10.5	10.5	10.3	9.0	9.7	8.5	10.5	8.0	10.0
65 years and over	1.7	2.1	.9	1.5	1.0	1.1	.6	.9	1.3
COLOR AND SEX									
White	74.6	74.7	71.8	71.6	76.4	74.0	73.8	77.0	75.9
Male	49.6	50.2	50.8	50.4	53.7	53.1	52.6	56.3	53.9
Female	25.1	24.5	21.0	21.2	22.7	20.9	21.2	20.7	22.0
Nonwhite	25.4	25.3	28.2	28.4	23.6	26.0	26.2	23.0	24.1
Male	15.4	14.7	18.4	19.3	17.1	18.9	20.3	17.3	16.6
Female	10.0	10.6	9.8	9.1	6.5	7.2	5.9	5.7	7.5

[1] See footnote 1, table A–1.

Table A–19. Long-Term Unemployment, by Major Industry and Occupation Group: Annual Averages, 1957–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over; numbers in thousands]

Industry and occupation group	1965	1964	1963	1962 [1]	1961	1960 [1]	1959	1958	1957 [2]
	Unemployed 15 weeks and over								
Total: Number	755	973	1,088	1,119	1,532	956	1,040	1,452	560
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
INDUSTRY GROUP									
Agriculture	3.7	3.2	3.0	2.1	2.4	3.6	2.7	2.1	2.9
Nonagricultural industries	82.4	84.0	84.8	86.5	88.4	86.4	88.5	90.9	88.8
Wage and salary workers	79.9	81.5	82.3	84.1	86.0	83.8	86.0	88.9	85.7
Mining, forestry, fisheries	1.3	2.3	1.5	2.0	2.2	2.8	2.5	2.6	2.9
Construction	10.6	9.2	10.8	11.2	11.2	12.3	14.3	10.5	11.9
Manufacturing	25.2	28.6	29.9	29.4	34.6	31.3	32.2	42.3	36.9
Durable goods	13.3	16.5	17.8	17.6	23.3	19.1	20.1	29.9	21.2
Nondurable goods	12.0	12.2	12.1	11.7	11.4	12.2	12.2	12.4	15.7
Transportation and public utilities	4.8	4.4	5.1	5.2	6.1	6.3	5.6	6.4	4.8
Wholesale and retail trade	17.0	16.7	15.6	17.8	15.5	15.3	15.1	13.5	13.7
Service industries and finance, insurance, real estate	18.9	17.2	16.1	15.8	13.9	13.3	13.8	11.3	12.7
Public administration	2.1	3.1	3.4	2.7	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.9
Self-employed and unpaid family workers	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.6	2.4	2.0	3.0
Persons with no previous work experience	13.8	12.8	12.1	11.4	9.2	10.0	8.8	7.0	8.4
OCCUPATION GROUP									
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	3.6	3.8	3.3	2.9	2.4	2.5	3.0	2.6	1.4
Farmers and farm managers	.5	.4	.4	.1	.1	.2	.3	.2	.3
Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm	3.6	3.5	3.2	3.6	2.6	2.5	3.0	2.8	3.1
Clerical and kindred workers	10.3	12.3	10.6	9.9	9.8	9.7	9.4	7.8	8.2
Sales workers	4.4	3.7	3.9	4.1	4.2	5.6	3.8	2.9	4.4
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	10.9	10.6	11.4	12.3	13.6	11.7	12.4	13.7	11.0
Operatives and kindred workers	24.3	24.6	26.5	25.4	29.3	29.0	28.7	35.1	31.8
Private household workers	3.1	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.0	2.4	2.0	1.6	2.8
Service workers, exc. private household	12.5	12.0	10.8	11.9	10.6	9.9	10.3	8.9	10.6
Farm laborers and foremen	2.7	2.3	2.0	1.5	1.7	2.8	2.6	1.8	2.4
Laborers, exc. farm and mine	10.5	11.5	13.2	14.2	14.6	15.7	15.7	15.8	15.5
Persons with no previous work experience	13.8	12.8	12.1	11.4	9.2	10.0	8.8	7.0	8.4
	Unemployed 27 weeks and over								
Total: Number	351	482	553	585	804	454	571	667	239
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
INDUSTRY GROUP									
Agriculture	3.7	2.7	2.2	1.7	1.6	2.4	2.3	1.8	2.5
Nonagricultural industries	83.5	84.2	84.8	87.0	89.3	86.5	89.2	92.0	89.1
Wage and salary workers	79.8	81.3	82.6	84.8	86.8	83.2	87.1	90.0	86.2
Mining, forestry, fisheries	2.0	3.5	1.8	2.1	2.4	3.3	3.1	3.3	2.9
Construction	6.8	7.7	9.2	8.7	9.5	11.1	10.1	8.8	10.0
Manufacturing	26.5	29.5	28.4	30.1	37.1	30.1	37.7	44.9	37.7
Durable goods	14.2	17.5	16.5	19.0	25.5	18.8	24.1	31.8	21.4
Nondurable goods	12.3	12.1	12.0	11.1	11.6	11.3	13.6	13.2	16.3
Transportation and public utilities	5.7	5.0	6.0	6.3	6.6	6.6	6.1	6.8	4.1
Wholesale and retail trade	17.7	15.6	15.8	18.8	15.2	15.0	15.2	12.7	14.5
Service industries and finance, insurance, real estate	18.5	17.3	17.8	16.2	13.2	13.5	12.0	10.9	12.4
Public administration	2.6	2.7	3.6	2.6	3.0	3.5	2.8	2.6	4.6
Self-employed and unpaid family workers	3.7	2.9	2.2	2.2	2.5	3.3	2.1	2.0	2.9
Persons with no previous work experience	12.8	13.1	13.0	11.3	9.1	11.1	8.6	6.2	8.3
OCCUPATION GROUP									
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	4.3	3.3	3.4	3.1	2.5	2.5	3.0	2.4	2.0
Farmers and farm managers	1.1	.4	.5	.2	.1	.2	.9	.2	.8
Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm	4.3	4.0	3.4	3.9	2.9	2.3	3.0	3.2	3.5
Clerical and kindred workers	10.5	11.2	9.9	10.2	10.0	8.9	8.7	7.3	7.9
Sales workers	4.5	4.2	4.0	4.8	3.6	3.7	4.2	2.9	4.3
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	10.8	10.0	10.7	10.9	12.6	11.2	11.7	12.4	9.8
Operatives and kindred workers	22.7	25.4	25.7	25.7	29.6	27.8	29.9	36.9	30.7
Private household workers	3.4	2.3	2.5	2.7	1.7	2.3	2.1	1.7	2.8
Service workers, exc. private household	13.9	12.9	11.9	12.3	11.1	10.9	9.6	8.9	11.8
Farm laborers and foremen	2.0	2.1	1.4	1.2	1.1	2.0	2.3	1.5	2.4
Laborers, exc. farm and mine	9.7	11.2	13.4	13.8	15.8	17.1	16.0	16.5	15.7
Persons with no previous work experience	12.8	13.1	13.0	11.3	9.1	11.1	8.6	6.2	8.3

[1] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[2] Percent distribution of the occupation groups for 1957 is based on average of data for January, April, July, and October.

Table A–20. Persons in Nonagricultural Industries on Full-Time Schedules or on Voluntary Part Time, by Selected Characteristics: Annual Averages, 1957–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over; numbers in thousands]

Item	1965	1964	1963	1962 [1]	1961	1960 [1]	1959	1958	1957
	On full-time schedules [2]								
Total: Number	54,692	52,872	51,439	50,619	49,427	49,542	48,865	47,077	48,617
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
SEX AND AGE									
Male	68.9	69.3	69.6	69.6	69.6	69.7	70.1	69.8	70.3
14 to 17 years	.6	.6	.5	.5	.5	.6	.5	.5	.6
18 to 24 years [3]	8.7	8.2	7.9	7.8	7.5	7.5	7.2	6.6	6.8
25 to 44 years	33.1	33.2	34.3	34.6	34.9	35.0	35.6	35.8	36.1
45 to 64 years	24.7	25.0	25.1	24.8	24.7	24.4	24.5	24.4	24.1
65 years and over	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.6
Female	31.1	30.7	30.4	30.4	30.4	30.3	29.9	30.2	29.7
14 to 17 years	.3	.3	.3	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4
18 to 24 years [3]	6.2	5.9	5.6	5.7	5.5	5.4	5.2	5.5	5.5
25 to 44 years	12.2	12.1	12.3	12.3	12.4	12.6	12.7	13.1	13.2
45 to 64 years	11.6	11.5	11.4	11.2	11.2	11.1	10.8	10.5	9.9
65 years and over	.8	.8	.8	.8	.9	.9	.8	.8	.8
COLOR AND SEX									
White	90.1	90.3	90.6	90.8	90.9	90.8	91.2	91.2	91.0
Male	62.6	63.2	63.6	63.7	63.8	63.8	64.3	64.2	64.4
Female	27.4	27.2	27.0	27.1	27.1	27.0	26.8	27.0	26.7
Nonwhite	9.9	9.7	9.4	9.2	9.1	9.2	8.8	8.8	9.0
Male	6.3	6.2	6.0	5.9	5.8	5.9	5.7	5.6	5.9
Female	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.2	3.1
SEX AND MARITAL STATUS									
Male:									
Single	8.6	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.6	8.9	8.7	8.5	9.0
Married, wife present	56.9	57.6	57.8	57.9	57.6	57.4	57.0	57.9	57.7
Widowed, divorced, separated	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5
Female:									
Single	7.1	7.0	7.0	7.1	7.3	7.5	7.3	7.9	8.0
Married, husband present	17.1	16.9	16.4	16.4	16.2	16.0	16.0	15.7	15.2
Widowed, divorced, separated	6.9	6.8	7.0	6.8	6.9	6.8	6.7	6.7	6.5
INDUSTRY GROUP									
Wage and salary workers	90.4	90.0	89.9	89.5	89.0	89.0	88.8	88.7	88.9
Construction	6.1	6.0	5.9	6.0	5.9	6.0	6.2	6.2	6.0
Manufacturing	31.1	30.7	30.7	30.1	29.5	29.9	29.9	28.9	31.0
Durable goods	18.1	17.8	17.9	17.3	16.7	17.0	17.3	16.5	18.3
Nondurable goods	12.9	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.8	12.9	12.6	12.4	12.7
Transportation and public utilities	7.3	7.4	7.5	7.7	7.8	8.1	7.9	8.1	8.4
Wholesale and retail trade	15.4	15.4	15.4	15.4	15.7	16.0	16.2	16.4	16.0
Service industries and finance, insurance, real estate	23.3	23.3	23.1	23.0	23.0	22.2	21.8	22.1	20.7
Other industries [4]	7.2	7.3	7.3	7.2	7.0	6.9	6.9	7.0	6.9
Self-employed and unpaid family workers	9.6	10.0	10.1	10.5	11.0	11.0	11.2	11.3	11.1

Footnotes at end of table.

Table A–20. Persons in Nonagricultural Industries on Full-Time Schedules or on Voluntary Part Time, by Selected Characteristics: Annual Averages, 1957–65—Continued

Item	1965	1964	1963	1962 [1]	1961	1960 [1]	1959	1958	1957
	On voluntary part-time schedules [2]								
Total: Number	7,607	7,263	6,808	6,597	6,148	5,815	5,569	5,215	5,181
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
SEX AND AGE									
Male	35.0	34.8	34.3	34.1	33.4	33.9	35.0	34.7	34.5
14 to 17 years	14.5	14.3	13.4	13.7	13.0	13.2	13.8	14.1	14.2
18 to 24 years [3]	8.7	7.8	7.8	7.2	7.2	6.7	6.9	6.6	6.3
25 to 44 years	2.5	2.9	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.3	3.7	3.5	3.5
45 to 64 years	3.5	3.8	3.9	4.0	3.8	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.4
65 years and over	5.7	6.1	6.2	6.2	6.5	6.6	6.3	6.0	6.1
Female	65.1	65.2	65.7	65.9	66.6	66.1	65.0	65.3	65.5
14 to 17 years	11.3	11.2	10.5	10.6	10.9	10.2	10.8	10.3	10.1
18 to 24 years [3]	8.4	7.9	7.8	7.5	7.3	6.7	6.4	6.2	6.4
25 to 44 years	22.1	22.2	23.2	23.5	23.6	23.8	23.3	23.9	24.1
45 to 64 years	18.7	19.3	19.6	19.5	19.8	20.2	20.1	20.1	20.3
65 years and over	4.6	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.9	5.2	4.4	4.8	4.6
COLOR AND SEX									
White	89.9	89.5	89.5	90.1	90.6	89.5	89.5	89.3	88.5
Male	32.1	31.8	31.5	31.8	31.2	31.2	32.3	32.1	31.8
Female	57.8	57.6	58.0	58 3	59.3	58.3	57.2	57.2	56.7
Nonwhite	10.1	10.5	10.5	9.9	9.4	10.5	10.5	10.7	11.5
Male	2.9	2.9	2.8	2.3	2.2	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7
Female	7.2	7.6	7.7	7.6	7.2	7.7	7.9	8.1	8.8
SEX AND MARITAL STATUS									
Male:									
Single	23.4	22.4	21.4	21.4	20.7	20.5	21.5	21.2	21.3
Married, wife present	10.2	10.6	11.1	11.1	10.9	11.5	11.5	11.4	11.3
Widowed, divorced, separated	1.4	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.0	1.7
Female:									
Single	18.1	18.0	17.4	17.3	17.4	16.2	17.1	16.7	16.9
Married, husband present	38.0	37.7	38.3	39.0	39.2	39.6	37.9	38.5	38.3
Widowed, divorced, separated	8.9	9.5	10.0	9.6	9.9	10.3	10.0	10.1	10.4
INDUSTRY GROUP									
Wage and salary workers	86.3	86.2	85.7	85.4	84.2	84.3	84.0	83.8	84.4
Construction	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.5	1.4	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.7
Manufacturing	6.7	7.2	7.7	8.0	7.5	7.4	7.5	7.1	7.4
Durable goods	1.9	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.6	1.7	2.1	1.9	2.0
Nondurable goods	4.7	5.4	5.7	6.0	5.9	5.7	5.5	5.2	5.4
Transportation and public utilities	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.0	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.4
Wholesale and retail trade	27.4	25.9	26.2	25.3	25.0	26.3	26.0	26.2	26.8
Service industries and finance, insurance, real estate	46.0	46.9	45.4	46.3	45.6	43.9	44.7	44.4	43.9
Other industries [4]	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.8	2.3	2.4	2.2
Self-employed and unpaid family workers	13.8	13.8	14.3	14.6	15.8	15.7	16.0	16.2	15.6

[1] See footnote 1, table A–1.
[2] Includes persons who worked 35 hours or more during the survey week and those who usually work full time but worked part time because of illness, bad weather, holidays, personal business, or other temporary noneconomic reasons.
[3] Data not available for the usual 20- to 24-year age group because the breakdown for the 18- and 19-year age group is not readily available.
[4] Includes mining, forestry, and fisheries, and also public administration.
[5] Includes persons who wanted only part-time work.

Table A–21. Persons on Part Time for Economic Reasons, by Type of Industry and Usual Full-Time or Part-Time Status: Annual Averages, 1957–65

[Thousands of persons 14 years of age and over]

Item	1965	1964	1963	1962 [1]	1961	1960 [1]	1959	1958	1957
Total	2,209	2,455	2,620	2,661	3,142	2,860	2,640	3,280	2,469
Usually work full time [2]	1,052	1,148	1,227	1,181	1,429	1,366	1,154	1,793	1,351
Usually work part time [3]	1,157	1,307	1,393	1,480	1,713	1,494	1,486	1,487	1,118
Agriculture	281	318	332	325	329	300	304	327	300
Usually work full time [2]	155	162	158	132	132	123	122	155	168
Usually work part time [3]	126	156	174	193	197	177	182	172	132
Nonagricultural industries	1,928	2,137	2,288	2,336	2,813	2,560	2,336	2,953	2,169
Usually work full time [2]	897	986	1,069	1,049	1,297	1,243	1,032	1,638	1,183
Usually work part time [3]	1,031	1,151	1,219	1,287	1,516	1,317	1,304	1,315	986

[1] See footnote 1, table A–1.
[2] Mainly persons who worked less than 35 hours during the survey week because of slack work, job changing during the week, material shortages, etc.
[3] Mainly persons who could find only part-time work.

Table A–22. Persons in Nonagricultural Industries on Part Time for Economic Reasons,[1] by Sex and Age: Annual Averages, 1957–65

[Thousands of persons 14 years of age and over]

Sex and age	1965	1964	1963	1962 [2]	1961	1960 [2]	1959	1958	1957
Both sexes	1,928	2,137	2,288	2,336	2,813	2,560	2,336	2,953	2,169
Male	1,005	1,154	1,263	1,308	1,625	1,476	1,320	1,793	1,263
14 to 17 years	108	106	106	113	127	114	115	114	99
18 to 24 years [3]	226	235	255	243	305	251	223	257	181
25 to 44 years	322	398	436	476	598	552	494	727	488
45 to 64 years	310	368	407	422	527	489	419	607	418
65 years and over	40	49	59	55	68	70	67	88	76
Female	923	982	1,025	1,029	1,188	1,083	1,016	1,161	906
14 to 17 years	55	60	65	65	65	75	62	57	58
18 to 24 years [3]	205	177	183	171	178	167	140	166	117
25 to 44 years	308	350	384	386	460	420	405	482	383
45 to 64 years	325	359	355	372	443	385	367	413	315
65 years and over	30	37	38	34	40	36	41	42	32

[1] Includes persons who worked less than 35 hours during the survey week because of slack work, job changing during the week, material shortages, inability to find full-time work, etc.
[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.
[3] See footnote 3, table A–20.

Table A–23. Persons in Nonagricultural Industries on Part Time for Economic Reasons, by Usual Full-Time or Part-Time Status and Selected Characteristics: Annual Averages, 1957–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over; numbers in thousands]

Item	1965	1964	1963	1962 [1]	1961	1960 [1]	1959	1958	1957
	Usually work full time [2]								
Total: Number	897	986	1,069	1,049	1,297	1,243	1,032	1,638	1,183
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sex and Age									
Male	60.2	61.0	63.0	64.7	66.1	68.0	65.8	68.7	65.0
14 to 17 years	1.6	1.6	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.3	.9	1.3
18 to 24 years [3]	13.2	11.8	11.6	9.7	10.5	10.6	10.0	8.1	8.9
25 to 44 years	24.1	26.1	26.7	28.1	29.0	30.1	31.2	32.2	30.2
45 to 64 years	20.2	19.9	21.6	22.9	23.9	24.5	21.4	25.0	22.4
65 years and over	1.2	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.6	1.7	1.8	2.6	2.2
Female	39.8	39.0	37.0	35.3	33.9	32.0	34.2	31.3	35.0
14 to 17 years	1.0	.6	.8	.9	.5	.9	.8	.5	1.0
18 to 24 years [3]	8.7	6.9	7.0	6.1	4.7	4.8	5.1	4.3	4.4
25 to 44 years	15.5	16.2	16.1	15.6	15.1	14.4	16.6	14.8	16.9
45 to 64 years	13.9	14.6	12.2	11.7	12.9	11.3	11.1	11.0	11.9
65 years and over	.7	.7	.8	1.0	.7	.6	.7	.7	.8
Color and Sex									
White	81.7	82.2	83.6	84.1	84.8	83.2	82.3	84.4	82.7
Male	48.7	49.8	52.0	54.1	56.0	56.3	54.1	58.1	53.9
Female	33.0	32.4	31.7	30.0	28.8	26.9	28.2	26.3	28.8
Nonwhite	18.3	17.8	16.4	15.9	15.2	16.8	17.7	15.6	17.3
Male	11.5	11.2	11.0	10.7	10.2	11.7	11.6	10.6	11.2
Female	6.8	6.6	5.3	5.2	5.0	5.2	6.0	5.0	6.1
Sex and Marital Status									
Male:									
Single	14.4	13.0	13.0	11.2	11.4	11.5	11.8	9.7	11.4
Married, wife present	41.1	44.2	45.3	48.8	50.0	51.1	49.4	54.7	49.6
Widowed, divorced, separated	4.7	3.9	4.7	4.8	4.6	5.3	4.6	4.4	4.1
Female:									
Single	6.7	6.1	6.3	6.0	5.3	5.5	5.5	4.9	5.8
Married, husband present	23.5	24.7	23.3	20.8	20.6	19.3	20.3	19.1	20.4
Widowed, divorced, separated	9.6	8.1	7.5	8.5	8.0	7.2	8.3	7.2	8.7
Industry Group									
Wage and salary workers	88.7	89.1	88.2	89.7	89.2	90.7	90.6	91.7	91.1
Construction	14.6	15.7	15.5	15.4	14.6	14.3	14.8	10.4	12.8
Manufacturing	37.2	37.6	39.1	39.3	44.9	46.7	40.8	53.1	50.0
Durable goods	14.3	13.4	15.6	16.2	20.0	23.5	18.3	29.5	22.7
Nondurable goods	23.0	24.2	23.5	23.1	24.8	23.2	22.5	23.6	27.3
Transportation and public utilities	6.2	5.5	5.7	5.8	4.9	5.1	6.3	5.1	5.7
Wholesale and retail trade	12.9	11.4	12.1	11.9	9.7	9.0	12.2	8.9	9.1
Service industries and finance, insurance, real estate	15.9	16.0	13.3	13.9	11.6	11.5	12.8	10.3	9.8
Other industries [4]	1.8	2.8	2.5	3.3	3.5	4.1	3.8	3.9	3.6
Self-employed and unpaid family workers	11.3	10.9	11.8	10.3	10.8	9.3	9.4	8.3	8.9

Footnotes at end of table.

Table A–23. Persons in Nonagricultural Industries on Part Time for Economic Reasons, by Usual Full-Time or Part-Time Status and Selected Characteristics: Annual Averages, 1957–65—Continued

Item	1965	1964	1963	1962 [1]	1961	1960 [1]	1959	1958	1957
	Usually work part time [2]								
Total: Number	1,031	1,151	1,219	1,287	1,516	1,317	1,304	1,315	986
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sex and Age									
Male	45.2	48.1	48.4	48.9	50.7	47.9	49.2	50.8	50.1
14 to 17 years	9.1	7.8	7.6	7.7	7.5	7.6	7.8	7.6	8.5
18 to 24 years [3]	10.5	10.3	10.8	10.9	11.2	9.0	9.2	9.5	7.7
25 to 44 years	10.3	12.2	12.3	13.4	14.7	13.5	13.2	15.2	13.3
45 to 64 years	12.5	14.9	14.4	14.1	14.4	14.1	15.2	15.1	15.5
65 years and over	2.8	2.9	3.3	2.7	3.0	3.7	3.7	3.4	5.1
Female	54.8	51.9	51.6	51.1	49.3	52.1	50.8	49.2	49.9
14 to 17 years	4.5	4.7	4.6	4.3	3.9	4.9	4.1	3.7	4.7
18 to 24 years [3]	12.3	9.5	8.9	8.3	7.7	8.1	6.7	7.2	6.6
25 to 44 years	16.4	16.5	17.4	17.2	17.4	18.3	18.0	18.2	18.6
45 to 64 years	19.4	18.7	18.4	19.3	18.2	18.5	19.4	17.7	17.7
65 years and over	2.3	2.6	2.4	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.6	2.4	2.3
Color and Sex									
White	65.6	65.3	66.2	65.2	68.3	67.5	66.4	68.4	66.8
Male	32.3	33.0	34.4	34.3	37.4	35.4	35.4	37.7	37.0
Female	33.3	32.3	31.8	30.9	30.9	32.1	31.0	30.7	29.8
Nonwhite	34.4	34.7	33.8	34.8	31.7	32.5	33.6	31.6	33.2
Male	12.8	15.0	14.0	14.5	13.3	12.5	13.7	13.0	13.1
Female	21.6	19.7	19.9	20.3	18.5	20.0	19.9	18.6	20.1
Sex and Marital Status									
Male:									
Single	21.6	21.7	20.7	21.1	20.8	19.5	20.3	19.8	19.7
Married, wife present	18.5	20.3	22.0	22.4	24.7	23.5	23.9	26.6	25.2
Widowed, divorced, separated	4.9	6.0	5.7	5.4	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.4	5.2
Female:									
Single	15.6	13.8	12.9	12.7	11.9	13.0	11.4	10.8	11.9
Married, husband present	23.5	22.1	22.9	23.0	22.6	22.9	22.9	23.5	23.1
Widowed, divorced, separated	15.8	16.1	15.8	15.4	14.8	16.2	16.7	15.0	15.0
Industry Group									
Wage and salary workers	91.9	91.5	91.2	91.1	91.3	92.1	92.6	92.5	92.3
Construction	7.1	8.3	8.0	7.7	7.7	7.4	8.6	7.9	7.6
Manufacturing	8.9	9.9	11.2	11.0	13.5	12.9	11.3	15.8	14.6
Durable goods	3.1	3.4	4.1	4.7	5.3	4.8	4.3	6.8	6.7
Nondurable goods	5.8	6.5	7.1	6.3	8.1	8.1	7.0	9.0	7.9
Transportation and public utilities	3.6	4.8	4.1	4.3	4.6	4.4	4.4	4.5	4.5
Wholesale and retail trade	24.2	22.5	22.1	22.3	21.1	21.9	21.1	20.0	20.9
Service industries and finance, insurance, real estate	46.5	44.1	44.1	43.2	41.8	42.9	44.3	41.1	41.6
Other industries [4]	1.6	1.9	1.7	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.1
Self-employed and unpaid family workers	8.1	8.5	8.8	8.9	8.7	7.9	7.4	7.5	7.7

[1] See footnote 1, table A–1.
[2] See footnote 2, table A–21.
[3] See footnote 3, table A–20.
[4] See footnote 4, table A–20.
[5] See footnote 3, table A–21.

Table B–1. Employment Status of the Population,[1] by Marital Status and Sex, 1947–65

[Persons 14 years of age and over; numbers in thousands]

Marital status and date	Male						Female					
	Population	Labor force					Population	Labor force				
		Total		Employed	Unemployed			Total		Employed	Unemployed	
		Number	Percent of population		Number	Percent of civilian labor force		Number	Percent of population		Number	Percent of civilian labor force
SINGLE												
April 1947	14,760	9,375	63.5	8,500	849	9.1	12,078	6,181	51.2	5,991	190	3.1
April 1948	14,734	9,440	64.1	8,699	(2)	----------	11,623	5,943	51.1	5,697	246	4.1
April 1949	13,952	8,957	64.2	8,048	863	9.7	11,174	5,682	50.9	5,395	287	5.1
March 1950	14,212	8,898	62.6	7,638	1,188	13.5	11,126	5,621	50.5	5,272	349	6.2
April 1951	12,964	8,036	61.9	7,550	427	5.4	10,946	5,430	49.6	5,228	202	3.7
April 1952	12,868	7,836	60.9	7,254	444	5.8	11,068	5,532	50.0	5,360	168	3.0
April 1953 [3]	13,000	7,825	60.2	7,347	390	5.0	10,774	5,223	48.5	5,089	130	2.5
April 1954	13,004	7,924	60.9	7,099	697	8.9	11,043	5,412	49.0	5,095	317	5.9
April 1955	13,522	8,276	61.2	7,495	653	8.0	10,962	5,087	46.4	4,865	222	4.4
March 1956	13,516	8,086	59.8	7,400	625	7.8	11,126	5,167	46.4	4,919	248	4.8
March 1957 [4]	13,754	7,958	57.9	7,166	716	9.1	11,487	5,378	46.8	5,139	239	4.4
March 1958	14,331	8,174	57.0	6,959	1,122	13.9	11,822	5,365	45.4	5,078	287	5.3
March 1959	14,768	8,416	57.0	7,263	1,083	13.0	11,884	5,162	43.4	4,832	330	6.4
March 1960 [3]	15,274	8,473	55.5	7,327	1,067	12.7	12,252	5,401	44.1	5,079	322	6.0
March 1961	15,886	8,837	55.6	7,533	1,246	14.2	12,764	5,663	44.4	5,235	428	7.6
March 1962 [3]	15,708	8,121	51.7	7,134	922	11.4	13,134	5,481	41.7	5,096	385	7.0
March 1963	16,361	8,267	50.5	7,059	1,124	13.7	13,692	5,614	41.0	5,218	396	7.1
March 1964	16,968	8,617	50.8	7,428	1,085	12.7	14,132	5,781	40.9	5,366	415	7.2
March 1965	17,338	8,719	50.3	7,765	898	10.3	14,607	5,912	40.5	5,491	421	7.1
MARRIED, SPOUSE PRESENT												
April 1947	33,389	30,927	92.6	29,865	837	2.7	33,458	6,676	20.0	6,502	174	2.6
April 1948	34,289	31,713	92.5	30,563	(2)	----------	34,289	7,553	22.0	7,369	184	2.4
April 1949	35,323	32,559	92.2	31,101	1,115	3.5	35,323	7,959	22.5	7,637	322	4.0
March 1950	35,925	32,912	91.6	30,938	1,503	4.6	35,925	8,550	23.8	8,038	512	6.0
April 1951	35,998	32,998	91.7	31,968	480	1.5	35,998	9,086	25.2	8,750	336	3.7
April 1952	36,510	33,482	91.7	32,222	464	1.4	36,510	9,222	25.3	8,946	266	2.9
April 1953 [3]	37,106	33,950	91.5	32,540	564	1.7	37,106	9,763	26.3	9,525	236	2.4
April 1954	37,346	34,153	91.5	32,139	1,328	4.0	37,346	9,923	26.6	9,388	535	5.4
April 1955	37,570	34,064	90.7	32,207	1,171	3.5	37,570	10,423	27.7	10,021	402	3.9
March 1956	38,306	34,855	91.0	33,046	1,016	3.0	38,306	11,126	29.0	10,676	450	4.0
March 1957 [4]	38,940	35,280	90.6	33,536	1,024	3.0	38,940	11,529	29.6	11,036	493	4.3
March 1958	39,182	35,327	90.2	32,283	2,267	6.6	39,182	11,826	30.2	10,993	833	7.0
March 1959	39,529	35,437	89.6	32,928	1,583	4.6	39,529	12,205	30.9	11,516	689	5.6
March 1960 [3]	40,205	35,757	88.9	33,179	1,564	4.5	40,205	12,253	30.5	11,587	666	5.4
March 1961	40,524	36,201	89.3	33,080	2,137	6.1	40,524	13,266	32.7	12,337	929	7.0
March 1962 [3]	41,218	36,396	88.3	33,883	1,605	4.5	41,218	13,485	32.7	12,716	769	5.7
March 1963	41,705	36,740	88.1	34,305	1,567	4.4	41,705	14,061	33.7	13,303	758	5.4
March 1964	42,045	36,898	87.8	34,667	1,310	3.6	42,045	14,461	34.4	13,626	835	5.8
March 1965	42,367	37,140	87.7	35,185	1,088	2.9	42,367	14,708	34.7	13,959	749	5.1
WIDOWED, DIVORCED, SEPARATED												
April 1947	4,201	2,760	65.7	2,546	211	7.7	9,270	3,466	37.4	3,309	157	4.5
April 1948	4,204	2,689	64.0	2,539	(2)	----------	9,452	3,659	38.7	3,463	196	5.4
April 1949	4,174	2,545	61.0	2,314	227	8.9	9,505	3,526	37.1	3,324	202	5.7
March 1950	4,149	2,616	63.1	2,301	311	11.9	9,584	3,624	37.8	3,364	260	7.2
April 1951	4,438	2,754	62.1	2,616	121	4.4	10,410	4,086	39.2	3,910	176	4.3
April 1952	4,186	2,602	62.2	2,422	140	5.5	10,456	4,058	38.8	3,928	130	3.2
April 1953 [3]	4,678	3,060	65.4	2,870	150	5.0	11,060	4,319	39.0	4,205	112	2.6
April 1954	4,947	3,061	62.3	2,755	318	10.3	11,153	4,391	39.4	4,120	269	6.1
April 1955	4,902	2,976	60.7	2,699	269	9.1	11,718	4,643	39.6	4,398	245	5.3
March 1956	4,922	3,001	61.0	2,737	246	8.2	11,543	4,549	39.4	4,300	249	5.5
March 1957 [4]	4,776	2,795	58.5	2,571	211	7.6	11,436	4,617	40.4	4,417	200	4.3
March 1958	4,949	2,903	58.7	2,524	354	12.3	11,780	4,810	40.8	4,474	336	7.0
March 1959	4,961	2,967	59.8	2,651	305	10.3	12,148	5,009	41.2	4,637	372	7.4
March 1960 [3]	4,794	2,845	59.3	2,542	279	9.9	12,150	4,861	40.0	4,553	308	6.3
March 1961	4,828	2,829	58.6	2,490	326	11.6	12,559	5,270	42.0	4,841	429	8.1
March 1962 [3]	5,203	2,989	57.4	2,629	355	11.9	12,814	5,012	39.1	4,681	331	6.6
March 1963	5,174	2,932	56.7	2,598	322	11.0	12,995	5,000	38.5	4,665	335	6.7
March 1964	5,205	2,933	56.3	2,635	286	9.8	13,326	5,157	38.7	4,794	363	7.0
March 1965	5,438	3,032	55.8	2,724	297	9.8	13,717	5,332	38.9	5,044	288	5.4

[1] Includes all persons 14 years of age and over in the civilian population (including institutional) and male members of the Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post. These members of the Armed Forces are also included in the male labor force totals.

[2] Not available.

[3] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[4] Beginning 1957, data are not strictly comparable with earlier data because of changes in the definitions of employment and unemployment. Two groups averaging about 250,000 workers who were formerly classified as employed (with a job but not at work)—those on temporary layoff and those waiting to start new wage and salary jobs within 30 days—were assigned to different classifications, mostly to the unemployed. The changes mainly affected the total for nonagricultural wage and salary workers, which was reduced by about 0.5 percent; there was little impact on any individual category in the group.

Table B–2. Labor Force Participation Rates,[1] by Marital Status, Sex, and Age, 1947–65

Marital status and date	Male									Female								
	14 years and over	14 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 64 years			65 years and over	14 years and over	14 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 64 years			65 years and over
						Total	45 to 54	55 to 64							Total	45 to 54	55 to 64	
SINGLE																		
April 1947	63.5	(2)	(2)	85.0	85.5	79.1	(2)	(2)	40.2	51.2	(2)	(2)	78.2	79.4	66.3	(2)	(2)	22.7
April 1948	64.1	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	51.1	29.3	78.8	81.8	78.1	61.6	(2)	(2)	23.2
April 1949	64.2	45.3	77.1	86.6	85.1	75.1	(2)	(2)	42.1	50.9	28.8	75.8	81.0	80.4	66.8	(2)	(2)	24.3
March 1950	62.6	42.1	78.7	84.1	83.6	74.1	(2)	(2)	41.0	50.5	26.3	74.9	84.6	83.6	70.6	(2)	(2)	23.8
April 1951	61.9	42.7	77.1	84.3	83.0	73.5	(2)	(2)	36.8	49.6	28.4	75.6	82.0	81.7	65.0	(2)	(2)	18.9
April 1952	60.9	40.7	79.2	86.8	83.7	76.6	85.0	66.2	28.2	50.0	28.0	75.9	83.0	78.4	71.9	78.5	63.1	16.4
April 1953	60.3	41.7	75.5	86.1	81.0	74.8	78.1	70.8	30.2	48.5	27.4	76.2	81.3	77.3	68.3	72.9	62.7	23.2
April 1954	60.9	40.8	78.6	89.2	83.2	81.8	84.1	78.6	28.9	49.0	27.5	77.2	83.7	77.0	70.8	76.9	61.1	17.3
April 1955	61.2	39.4	76.5	89.1	82.2	86.7	88.8	83.6	31.6	46.4	24.6	69.6	80.9	81.2	74.8	79.4	69.1	26.0
March 1956	59.8	39.2	75.9	89.7	85.4	76.3	82.0	67.9	25.9	46.4	24.7	72.2	85.5	78.5	70.1	74.7	63.8	24.3
March 1957	57.9	38.9	73.2	86.5	82.9	77.0	83.1	68.9	26.8	46.8	26.8	74.6	79.5	81.9	72.9	78.0	66.7	24.5
March 1958	57.0	36.0	73.9	87.5	82.8	78.1	83.7	72.1	28.9	45.4	24.7	72.9	80.1	79.1	72.4	77.3	66.1	26.7
March 1959	57.0	36.5	75.3	88.2	85.1	75.3	79.7	69.6	25.3	43.4	24.0	72.7	76.4	81.8	71.1	74.4	66.4	20.3
March 1960	55.5	34.4	76.6	85.3	85.3	74.4	77.5	69.7	24.3	44.1	25.3	73.4	79.9	79.7	73.1	80.6	67.0	21.6
March 1961	55.6	34.3	76.3	87.5	88.2	77.5	82.6	69.0	23.0	44.4	26.1	76.5	79.9	77.5	76.0	81.8	68.6	20.8
March 1962	51.7	32.4	73.9	87.0	80.3	73.4	76.0	70.0	24.8	41.7	25.0	70.9	79.8	77.3	71.0	74.1	67.2	17.3
March 1963	50.5	31.7	74.1	85.5	81.0	72.6	75.7	69.0	18.2	41.0	23.6	71.9	81.4	82.5	73.7	79.2	67.6	16.9
March 1964	50.8	33.0	70.6	83.6	82.8	73.9	81.4	64.5	20.3	40.9	23.5	74.0	87.2	83.0	71.3	75.0	67.0	19.2
March 1965	50.3	32.0	72.3	85.3	84.6	72.0	78.5	65.1	18.1	40.5	23.6	72.3	83.4	77.0	71.8	75.7	68.1	21.3
MARRIED, SPOUSE PRESENT																		
April 1947	92.6	(2)	(2)	97.7	98.8	95.0	(2)	(2)	54.5	20.0	(2)	(2)	19.3	25.8	18.4	(2)	(2)	4.1
April 1948	92.5	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	22.0	21.2	24.9	22.2	27.3	19.4	(2)	(2)	6.1
April 1949	92.2	(2)	94.9	97.7	98.7	94.3	(2)	(2)	51.9	22.5	18.6	24.5	22.7	28.5	20.6	(2)	(2)	5.2
March 1950	91.6	92.6	94.5	97.0	98.8	92.8	(2)	(2)	53.4	23.8	24.0	28.5	23.8	28.5	21.8	(2)	(2)	6.4
April 1951	91.7	96.7	95.6	98.2	98.4	93.5	(2)	(2)	50.9	25.2	17.6	29.1	25.6	30.5	23.7	(2)	(2)	6.5
April 1952	91.7	97.0	97.9	99.0	98.8	93.8	97.1	89.3	47.8	25.3	21.9	25.8	25.4	31.7	24.1	29.0	16.9	5.9
April 1953	91.5	100.0	96.1	98.7	98.8	94.9	97.6	91.0	46.2	26.3	20.8	28.2	25.2	33.6	25.7	30.8	17.6	6.0
April 1954	91.5	91.6	98.0	98.9	99.0	94.9	97.8	90.9	47.1	26.6	20.9	25.6	26.3	33.1	26.9	31.0	20.7	5.4
April 1955	90.7	98.8	94.5	98.8	98.8	93.8	97.4	88.8	44.2	27.7	19.8	29.4	26.0	33.7	29.0	33.9	21.3	7.5
March 1956	91.0	95.5	95.5	98.7	99.2	94.6	97.8	90.1	44.8	29.0	27.6	30.9	26.3	34.3	31.5	36.5	23.5	7.8
March 1957	90.6	97.9	95.9	98.7	98.7	94.4	97.6	90.1	42.4	29.6	24.0	30.2	27.1	35.7	32.2	37.2	24.6	6.3
March 1958	90.2	95.5	96.6	98.7	98.7	94.0	97.2	89.4	40.6	30.2	25.9	30.7	27.4	36.7	32.6	38.2	23.8	6.7
March 1959	89.6	95.7	95.6	98.6	98.9	94.0	97.3	89.3	38.2	30.9	28.1	30.6	28.5	36.9	33.9	40.3	24.0	6.4
March 1960	88.9	96.0	97.5	98.6	98.4	93.0	96.6	87.9	37.1	30.5	25.3	30.0	27.7	36.2	34.2	40.5	24.3	5.9
March 1961	89.3	98.3	97.4	99.0	98.5	93.7	97.0	89.1	37.6	32.7	27.8	32.4	29.2	38.4	37.3	42.4	29.3	7.3
March 1962	88.3	95.2	96.0	98.7	98.6	93.6	97.1	88.8	35.0	32.7	27.5	31.6	29.4	39.0	37.2	42.5	29.0	7.6
March 1963	88.1	97.8	96.5	98.6	98.9	93.6	97.3	88.4	32.3	33.7	29.8	33.2	30.0	39.8	38.9	44.4	30.4	6.4
March 1964	87.8	95.3	96.7	98.5	98.4	93.2	97.4	87.4	31.0	34.4	31.1	36.6	30.6	39.4	39.5	44.8	31.3	7.6
March 1965	87.7	94.3	96.6	98.5	98.2	92.8	96.8	87.1	31.1	34.7	27.0	35.6	32.1	40.6	39.0	44.0	31.4	7.6
WIDOWED, DIVORCED, SEPARATED																		
April 1947	65.7	(2)	(2)	85.2	89.3	78.8	(2)	(2)	32.8	37.4	(2)	(2)	63.8	67.6	45.4	(2)	(2)	7.6
April 1948	64.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	38.7	41.0	57.9	64.7	67.9	48.9	(2)	(2)	8.5
April 1949	60.9	(2)	69.9	78.0	87.1	74.9	(2)	(2)	32.2	37.1	39.7	47.6	59.2	68.4	46.7	(2)	(2)	8.6
March 1950	63.0	(2)	75.0	83.8	83.4	83.1	(2)	(2)	30.2	37.8	(2)	45.5	62.3	65.4	50.2	(2)	(2)	8.8
April 1951	62.1	(2)	81.7	81.8	87.4	77.8	(2)	(2)	27.6	39.3	39.1	45.3	58.7	69.0	51.5	(2)	(2)	9.2
April 1952	62.2	(2)	78.2	81.1	88.2	79.0	79.1	78.9	27.3	38.8	41.0	59.0	63.0	68.7	49.6	61.5	39.5	8.2
April 1953	65.4	(2)	(2)	82.9	92.1	84.2	89.6	79.9	29.2	39.1	47.8	52.9	61.2	67.2	52.4	64.7	42.6	9.1
April 1954	62.3	(2)	82.2	76.3	90.6	78.8	83.7	74.4	22.7	39.4	48.6	47.6	62.7	69.3	52.0	61.8	44.6	9.8
April 1955	60.7	(2)	(2)	80.9	83.5	78.6	85.6	72.7	26.4	39.6	37.3	55.1	60.5	64.6	53.3	64.1	45.1	10.7
March 1956	61.0	(2)	82.8	79.7	86.5	78.0	80.5	75.3	27.2	39.4	35.3	49.5	60.6	66.8	55.8	63.0	50.6	10.2
March 1957	58.5	(2)	85.8	81.2	86.8	76.3	82.8	69.7	24.5	40.4	35.5	53.1	62.1	69.4	56.0	66.4	47.8	12.3
March 1958	58.7	(2)	77.2	79.0	87.1	77.3	80.5	74.5	23.0	40.8	31.8	59.6	62.6	69.9	58.3	68.2	50.9	11.2
March 1959	59.8	(2)	69.2	80.0	87.1	77.2	82.8	72.4	20.8	41.2	34.5	57.6	61.4	65.7	60.3	68.3	53.9	11.0
March 1960	59.3	(2)	88.6	82.3	84.1	78.1	84.3	72.6	18.2	40.0	37.3	54.6	55.5	67.4	58.3	68.2	50.7	11.0
March 1961	58.6	(2)	81.0	81.3	81.6	78.2	83.1	73.1	21.2	42.0	42.3	58.5	61.5	72.2	59.7	69.9	51.5	12.0
March 1962	57.4	(2)	70.7	80.8	85.0	77.4	82.6	71.7	16.7	39.1	34.0	54.7	57.5	63.3	60.2	71.0	52.0	11.2
March 1963	56.7	(2)	71.8	79.0	82.4	77.2	83.4	70.6	16.3	38.5	36.6	58.1	56.5	66.8	59.1	67.8	52.5	9.8
March 1964	56.3	(2)	79.7	82.9	81.5	77.3	82.6	71.8	17.1	38.7	28.7	50.3	60.3	63.7	60.4	70.2	53.1	10.3
March 1965	55.8	(2)	65.0	79.0	82.1	77.2	81.6	72.6	18.8	38.9	35.2	58.6	62.8	65.0	59.8	67.9	53.3	10.0

[1] Percent of population in the labor force. See footnote 1, table B–1.
[2] Not available.
[3] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

Table B–3. Employment Status of Family Head, Wife, and Other Family Members in Husband-Wife Families,[1] Selected Dates, 1955–65

[Numbers in thousands]

Employment status of head and family members	March of—								April of 1955 [3]
	1965	1964	1963	1962 [3]	1961	1960 [3]	1959	1958	
HEAD IN LABOR FORCE [4]									
Total: Number	36,545	36,286	36,079	35,713	35,453	35,041	34,625	34,412	34,064
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wife or other member in labor force	47.4	47.6	46.5	45.0	45.0	43.0	43.3	41.9	39.9
Wife only	29.6	28.8	28.7	28.1	27.6	25.8	26.1	26.0	23.9
Wife and other member	7.3	7.6	6.9	6.5	6.6	6.2	6.1	5.4	4.9
Other member only	10.5	11.1	10.8	10.4	10.8	11.1	11.2	10.5	11.2
Wife or other member employed [5]	44.6	44.3	43.3	42.0	41.2	40.1	40.1	38.8	38.2
Wife or other member unemployed (none employed)	2.9	3.3	3.2	3.0	3.8	2.9	3.2	3.0	1.8
Neither wife nor other member in labor force	52.6	52.4	53.5	55.0	55.0	57.0	56.7	58.1	60.1
HEAD EMPLOYED [4]									
Total: Number	35,512	35,052	34,595	34,185	33,428	32,579	33,149	32,298	32,893
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wife or other member in labor force	47.2	47.3	46.2	44.7	44.6	42.7	43.1	41.4	39.6
Wife only	29.4	28.6	28.6	27.8	27.3	25.5	25.8	25.5	23.6
Wife and other member	7.3	7.6	6.9	6.4	6.6	6.1	6.0	5.3	4.8
Other member only	10.5	11.2	10.8	10.5	10.8	11.2	11.3	10.5	11.2
Wife or other member employed [5]	44.5	44.3	43.2	41.9	41.2	40.0	40.1	38.8	38.0
Wife or other member unemployed (none employed)	2.7	3.1	3.0	2.8	3.5	2.7	2.9	2.6	1.6
Neither wife nor other member in labor force	52.8	52.7	53.8	55.3	55.4	57.3	56.9	58.6	60.4
HEAD UNEMPLOYED									
Total: Number	1,033	1,234	1,484	1,528	2,025	1,462	1,477	2,114	1,171
As percent of heads in labor force	3.0	3.4	4.1	4.3	5.7	4.2	4.3	6.1	3.4
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Wife or other member in labor force	54.6	54.4	53.2	50.9	51.4	49.7	49.0	49.0	48.8
Wife only	36.6	36.6	32.3	34.1	34.1	32.1	32.6	32.4	31.3
Wife and other member	7.8	7.7	9.0	8.6	6.5	8.0	7.1	6.9	6.6
Other member only	10.3	10.1	11.9	8.3	10.8	9.6	9.3	9.7	10.8
Wife or other member employed [5]	47.5	44.4	45.7	42.6	41.5	41.7	40.8	39.3	42.4
Wife or other member unemployed (none employed)	7.2	10.0	7.5	8.3	9.9	7.9	8.2	9.7	6.4
Neither wife nor other member in labor force	45.4	45.6	46.8	49.0	48.6	50.3	51.0	51.0	51.2

[1] The number of men in husband-wife families shown here is smaller than the number shown as married with spouse present in table B–1 because it excludes married couples living in households where a relative is the head.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[3] Data for 1955 not strictly comparable with later years. See footnote 4, table B–1.

[4] Includes members of the Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post.

[5] This category may also include a wife or other member who is unemployed.

Table B–4. Labor Force Status and Labor Force Participation Rates [1] of Married Women, Husband Present, by Presence and Age of Children, 1948–65

Date	Total	No children under 18 years	Children 6 to 17 years only	Children under 6 years		
				Total	No children 6 to 17 years	Children 6 to 17 years
	Number in labor force (thousands)					
April 1948	7,553	4,400	1,927	1,226	594	632
April 1949	7,959	4,544	2,130	1,285	654	631
March 1950	8,550	4,946	2,205	1,399	748	651
April 1951	9,086	5,016	2,400	1,670	886	784
April 1952	9,222	5,042	2,492	1,688	916	772
April 1953 [2]	9,763	5,130	2,749	1,884	1,047	837
April 1954	9,923	5,096	3,019	1,808	883	925
April 1955	10,423	5,227	3,183	2,012	927	1,086
March 1956	11,126	5,694	3,384	2,048	971	1,077
March 1957	11,529	5,805	3,517	2,208	961	1,247
March 1958	11,826	5,713	3,714	2,399	1,122	1,277
March 1959	12,205	5,679	4,055	2,471	1,118	1,353
March 1960 [2]	12,253	5,692	4,087	2,474	1,123	1,351
March 1961	13,266	6,186	4,419	2,661	1,178	1,483
March 1962 [2]	13,485	6,156	4,445	2,884	1,282	1,602
March 1963	14,061	6,366	4,689	3,006	1,346	1,660
March 1964	14,461	6,545	4,866	3,050	1,408	1,642
March 1965	14,708	6,755	4,836	3,117	1,404	1,709
	Labor force participation rate					
April 1948	22.0	28.4	26.0	10.8	9.2	12.7
April 1949	22.5	28.7	27.3	11.0	10.0	12.2
March 1950	23.8	30.3	28.3	11.9	11.2	12.6
April 1951	25.2	31.0	30.3	14.0	13.6	14.6
April 1952	25.3	30.9	31.1	13.9	13.7	14.1
April 1953	26.3	31.2	32.2	15.5	15.8	15.2
April 1954	26.6	31.6	33.2	14.9	14.3	15.5
April 1955	27.7	32.7	34.7	16.2	15.1	17.3
March 1956	29.0	35.3	36.4	15.9	15.6	16.1
March 1957	29.6	35.6	36.6	17.0	15.3	17.9
March 1958	30.2	35.4	37.6	18.2	18.4	18.1
March 1959	30.9	35.2	39.8	18.7	18.3	19.0
March 1960	30.5	34.7	39.0	18.6	18.2	18.9
March 1961	32.7	37.3	41.7	20.0	19.6	20.3
March 1962	32.7	36.1	41.8	21.3	21.1	21.5
March 1963	33.7	37.4	41.5	22.5	22.4	22.5
March 1964	34.4	37.8	43.0	22.7	23.6	21.9
March 1965	34.7	38.3	42.7	23.3	23.8	22.8

[1] Percent of noninstitutional population in the labor force.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

Table B–5. Employed Married Women, Husband Present, by Major Occupation Group, 1947–65

Date	All occupation groups		Professional, technical, and kindred workers	Farmers and farm managers	Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm	Clerical and kindred workers	Sales workers	Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	Operatives and kindred workers	Private household workers	Service workers, exc. private household	Farm laborers and foremen	Laborers, exc. farm and mine
	Number (thousands)	Percent											
April 1947	6,502	100.0	7.9	1.9	6.5	21.2	8.7	1.1	25.6	8.4	11.2	7.1	.5
April 1948	7,369	100.0	7.7	1.8	7.2	32.0		1.3	24.6	17.7		7.2	.3
April 1949	7,637	100.0	8.3	1.5	6.9	23.4		1.1	22.0	18.7		8.6	.5
March 1950	8,038	100.0	9.5	1.0	7.0	32.4		1.2	23.1	20.2		5.2	.4
April 1951	8,750	100.0	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
April 1952	8,946	100.0	9.7	.7	6.6	25.8	8.8	1.3	23.0	6.8	11.2	5.4	.7
April 1953 [2]	9,525	100.0	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
April 1954	9,388	100.0	11.2	.5	6.1	24.4	9.2	1.5	22.4	5.9	13.2	5.3	.4
April 1955	10,021	100.0	10.5	.7	4.6	25.4	9.4	1.3	21.8	6.3	12.8	6.6	.6
March 1956	10,676	100.0	10.4	.6	5.6	27.6	9.6	1.4	19.0	6.9	13.2	5.1	.5
March 1957 [3]	11,036	100.0	10.7	.4	6.1	28.4	8.4	1.2	19.1	7.4	13.0	4.6	.6
March 1958	10,995	100.0	12.1	.3	5.6	28.3	8.9	1.3	18.0	7.4	14.0	3.8	.5
March 1959	11,516	100.0	12.8	.4	5.9	27.7	8.7	1.1	17.9	6.3	14.9	3.9	.4
March 1960 [2]	11,587	100.0	13.0	.2	5.0	28.3	8.4	1.0	18.6	6.2	15.9	3.1	.3
March 1961	12,337	100.0	12.9	.5	5.3	29.3	9.2	1.1	16.7	6.3	14.7	3.5	.5
March 1962 [2]	12,716	100.0	14.2	.4	5.7	30.6	8.7	1.2	15.6	6.0	14.4	2.7	.5
March 1963	13,303	100.0	13.4	.4	5.2	30.3	8.4	1.3	16.4	5.8	15.6	2.7	.4
March 1964	13,626	100.0	13.3	.3	5.6	30.2	8.2	1.2	17.3	5.5	15.8	2.2	.4
March 1965	13,959	100.0	14.7	.2	4.7	30.2	8.1	1.3	17.5	5.1	15.5	2.3	.5

[1] Not available.

[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.

[3] Beginning 1957, data not strictly comparable with earlier years. See footnote 4, table B–1.

Table B–6. Labor Force Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 14 to 24 Years Old, by School Enrollment, Sex, and Age, October of 1947–64

Labor force status and year	Both sexes, 14 to 24 years	Male						Female					
		Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years
			Total	14 and 15	16 and 17				Total	14 and 15	16 and 17		
	Population (thousands)												
Enrolled in School													
1947	8,927	4,898	3,364	(1)	(1)	587	947	4,029	3,373	(1)	(1)	420	236
1948	9,061	5,015	3,436	(1)	(1)	682	898	4,046	3,388	(1)	(1)	452	206
1949	8,846	4,866	3,447	(1)	(1)	593	827	3,981	3,331	(1)	(1)	435	215
1950	9,189	4,982	3,568	(1)	(1)	680	733	4,207	3,420	(1)	(1)	519	268
1951	9,036	4,750	3,614	(1)	(1)	534	602	4,286	3,602	(1)	(1)	440	244
1952	9,406	5,000	3,758	(1)	(1)	612	630	4,406	3,682	(1)	(1)	450	274
1953 [2]	9,700	5,122	3,844	2,214	1,630	642	636	4,579	3,695	2,145	1,550	538	346
1954	10,052	5,410	4,002	2,232	1,770	730	677	4,642	3,782	2,145	1,637	538	322
1955	10,212	5,534	4,096	2,285	1,811	752	686	4,677	3,873	2,231	1,642	480	324
1956	11,013	5,915	4,276	2,482	1,794	809	830	5,098	4,138	2,404	1,734	598	362
1957 [3]	11,812	6,323	4,646	2,729	1,917	780	897	5,489	4,421	2,599	1,822	629	439
1958	12,317	6,667	4,854	2,751	2,103	898	915	5,651	4,591	2,664	1,927	667	393
1959	12,719	6,849	5,039	2,716	2,323	918	892	5,870	4,796	2,603	2,193	683	391
1960 [2]	13,409	7,247	5,248	2,878	2,370	1,063	936	6,162	4,994	2,763	2,231	754	414
1961	14,582	7,863	5,705	3,394	2,311	1,170	988	6,719	5,458	3,227	2,231	782	479
1962 [2]	15,609	8,421	6,032	3,576	2,456	1,212	1,177	7,188	5,708	3,422	2,286	932	548
1963	16,592	8,947	6,402	3,466	2,936	1,180	1,365	7,645	6,115	3,347	2,768	881	649
1964	17,258	9,228	6,658	3,479	3,179	1,238	1,332	8,030	6,356	3,353	3,003	958	716
Not Enrolled in School													
1947	15,330	6,808	900	(1)	(1)	1,282	4,626	8,521	855	(1)	(1)	1,848	5,818
1948	14,906	6,606	759	(1)	(1)	1,306	4,542	8,299	760	(1)	(1)	1,770	5,770
1949	14,782	6,574	729	(1)	(1)	1,286	4,558	8,208	797	(1)	(1)	1,748	5,664
1950	14,159	6,291	659	(1)	(1)	1,224	4,408	7,868	735	(1)	(1)	1,613	5,520
1951	13,034	5,340	628	(1)	(1)	1,114	3,598	7,694	628	(1)	(1)	1,626	5,440
1952	12,310	4,776	642	(1)	(1)	1,032	3,102	7,534	652	(1)	(1)	1,590	5,292
1953 [2]	11,731	4,442	585	83	502	1,063	2,795	7,289	652	75	577	1,542	5,094
1954	11,696	4,436	508	90	418	1,067	2,861	7,260	644	103	541	1,580	5,035
1955	11,980	4,655	526	103	423	1,018	3,111	7,326	674	90	584	1,655	4,997
1956	11,833	4,706	524	74	450	984	3,198	7,127	602	80	522	1,587	4,938
1957 [3]	11,917	4,794	455	57	398	1,021	3,318	7,123	612	102	510	1,611	4,900
1958	12,208	4,955	495	89	406	994	3,446	7,273	651	86	565	1,599	5,023
1959	12,613	5,240	479	61	418	1,097	3,664	7,373	594	80	514	1,655	5,124
1960 [2]	12,995	5,428	496	61	435	1,158	3,774	7,567	603	66	537	1,758	5,206
1961	13,465	5,638	485	67	418	1,237	3,916	7,827	570	93	477	1,950	5,307
1962 [2]	13,304	5,409	409	45	364	1,154	3,846	7,895	611	95	516	1,831	5,453
1963	13,572	5,495	395	46	349	1,135	3,965	8,077	563	67	496	1,847	5,667
1964	14,163	5,857	397	34	363	1,196	4,264	8,306	567	62	505	1,884	5,855
	Labor force (thousands)												
Enrolled in School													
1947	(1)	(1)	744	(1)	(1)	149	(1)	(1)	393	(1)	(1)	89	(1)
1948	1,855	1,265	833	(1)	(1)	190	241	590	478	(1)	(1)	65	48
1949	1,877	1,197	775	(1)	(1)	163	258	680	502	(1)	(1)	106	72
1950	2,421	1,575	1,066	(1)	(1)	245	264	846	614	(1)	(1)	144	87
1951	2,290	1,428	1,012	(1)	(1)	172	244	862	656	(1)	(1)	126	80
1952	1,980	1,310	946	(1)	(1)	192	172	670	512	(1)	(1)	76	82
1953 [2]	1,888	1,226	855	382	473	206	165	662	474	197	277	96	92
1954	2,332	1,496	1,031	462	569	206	265	836	592	203	389	126	118
1955	2,706	1,801	1,185	510	675	330	286	905	634	282	352	135	136
1956	3,007	1,894	1,193	547	646	319	382	1,113	774	310	464	162	177
1957 [3]	3,161	1,990	1,276	582	694	299	415	1,171	795	310	485	167	20
1958	3,116	2,037	1,276	514	762	309	452	1,079	717	285	432	211	151
1959	3,373	2,128	1,353	574	779	330	445	1,245	872	357	515	196	177
1960 [2]	3,390	2,171	1,386	580	806	371	414	1,219	841	336	505	210	168
1961	3,551	2,223	1,352	617	735	382	489	1,328	900	439	461	235	193
1962 [2]	3,872	2,481	1,437	651	786	423	621	1,391	940	413	527	203	248
1963	4,220	2,711	1,597	608	989	433	681	1,509	1,007	348	659	253	249
1964	4,315	2,732	1,646	612	1,034	446	640	1,583	1,071	388	683	241	271
Not Enrolled in School													
1947	(1)	(1)	808	(1)	(1)	1,199	(1)	(1)	464	(1)	(1)	1,128	(1)
1948	10,421	6,304	680	(1)	(1)	1,248	4,376	4,117	422	(1)	(1)	1,040	2,655
1949	10,306	6,181	625	(1)	(1)	1,214	4,342	4,125	399	(1)	(1)	1,062	2,664
1950	10,049	5,958	578	(1)	(1)	1,172	4,209	4,091	380	(1)	(1)	979	2,732
1951	8,920	5,064	512	(1)	(1)	1,058	3,494	3,856	296	(1)	(1)	984	2,576
1952	8,194	4,438	566	(1)	(1)	960	2,912	3,756	350	(1)	(1)	960	2,446
1953 [2]	7,823	4,204	500	65	434	1,019	2,685	3,620	311	23	288	959	2,350
1954	7,691	4,044	407	52	355	955	2,682	3,647	257	29	228	957	2,433
1955	8,155	4,400	428	54	374	965	3,007	3,755	299	23	276	1,025	2,431
1956	8,073	4,390	422	40	382	892	3,076	3,683	282	23	259	959	2,442
1957 [3]	7,975	4,507	362	31	331	947	3,198	3,467	240	16	225	993	2,234
1958	8,206	4,643	399	56	343	924	3,320	3,653	284	26	258	949	2,420
1959	8,530	4,931	366	31	335	1,019	3,546	3,599	250	20	230	951	2,398
1960 [2]	8,913	5,124	383	27	356	1,075	3,666	3,789	297	24	273	1,060	2,432
1961	9,230	5,228	353	32	321	1,115	3,760	4,002	263	20	243	1,173	2,566
1962 [2]	9,149	5,071	304	26	278	1,065	3,702	4,078	235	12	223	1,130	2,713
1963	9,314	5,158	293	20	273	1,061	3,804	4,156	227	10	217	1,133	2,796
1964	9,892	5,490	273	10	263	1,100	4,117	4,402	233	18	215	1,135	3,034

Footnotes at end of table.

Table B–6. Labor Force Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 14 to 24 Years Old, by School Enrollment, Sex, and Age, October of 1947–64—Continued

Labor force status and year	Both sexes, 14 to 24 years	Male						Female					
		Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years
			Total	14 and 15	16 and 17				Total	14 and 15	16 and 17		
	Labor force participation rate [4]												
ENROLLED IN SCHOOL													
1947	(1)	(1)	22.1	(1)	(1)	25.4	(1)	(1)	11.7	(1)	(1)	21.2	(1)
1948	20.5	25.2	24.2	(1)	(1)	27.9	26.8	14.6	14.1	(1)	(1)	14.4	23.3
1949	21.2	24.6	22.5	(1)	(1)	27.5	31.2	17.1	15.1	(1)	(1)	24.4	33.5
1950	26.3	31.6	29.9	(1)	(1)	36.0	36.0	20.1	18.0	(1)	(1)	27.7	32.5
1951	25.3	30.0	28.0	(1)	(1)	32.2	40.5	20.1	18.2	(1)	(1)	28.6	32.8
1952	21.0	26.2	25.2	(1)	(1)	31.4	27.3	15.2	13.9	(1)	(1)	16.9	29.9
1953	19.5	23.9	22.2	17.3	29.0	32.1	25.9	14.5	12.8	9.2	17.9	17.8	26.6
1954	23.2	27.7	25.8	20.7	32.1	27.4	39.1	18.0	15.7	9.5	23.8	23.4	36.6
1955	26.5	32.5	28.9	22.3	37.3	43.9	41.7	19.4	16.4	12.6	21.4	28.1	42.0
1956	27.3	32.0	27.9	22.0	36.0	39.4	46.0	21.8	18.7	12.9	26.8	27.1	48.9
1957	26.8	31.5	27.5	21.3	36.2	38.3	46.3	21.3	18.0	11.9	26.6	26.6	47.6
1958	25.3	30.6	26.3	18.7	36.2	34.4	49.4	19.1	15.6	10.7	22.4	31.6	38.4
1959	26.5	31.1	26.9	21.1	33.5	35.9	49.9	21.2	18.2	13.7	23.5	28.7	45.3
1960	25.3	30.0	26.4	20.2	34.0	34.9	44.2	19.8	16.8	12.2	22.6	27.9	40.6
1961	24.4	28.3	23.7	18.2	31.8	32.6	49.5	19.8	16.5	13.6	20.7	30.1	40.3
1962	24.8	29.5	23.8	18.2	32.0	34.9	52.8	19.4	16.5	12.1	23.1	21.8	45.3
1963	25.4	30.3	24.9	17.5	33.7	36.7	49.9	19.7	16.5	10.4	23.8	28.7	38.4
1964	25.0	29.6	24.7	17.6	32.5	36.0	48.0	19.7	16.8	11.6	22.7	25.2	37.8
NOT ENROLLED IN SCHOOL													
1947	(1)	(1)	89.8	(1)	(1)	93.5	(1)	(1)	54.3	(1)	(1)	61.0	(1)
1948	69.9	95.4	89.6	(1)	(1)	95.6	96.3	49.6	55.5	(1)	(1)	58.8	46.0
1949	69.7	94.0	85.7	(1)	(1)	94.4	95.3	50.2	50.1	(1)	(1)	60.8	47.0
1950	71.0	94.7	87.7	(1)	(1)	95.8	95.5	52.0	51.7	(1)	(1)	60.7	49.5
1951	68.4	94.8	81.5	(1)	(1)	95.0	97.1	50.1	47.1	(1)	(1)	60.5	47.4
1952	66.6	92.9	88.2	(1)	(1)	93.0	93.9	49.9	53.7	(1)	(1)	60.4	46.2
1953	66.7	94.6	85.5	(5)	86.5	95.9	96.1	49.7	47.7	(5)	49.9	62.2	46.1
1954	65.8	91.2	80.1	(5)	84.9	89.5	93.7	50.2	39.9	(5)	42.1	60.6	48.3
1955	68.1	94.5	81.4	(5)	88.4	94.8	96.7	51.3	44.4	(5)	47.3	61.9	48.6
1956	68.2	93.3	80.5	(5)	84.9	90.7	96.2	51.7	46.8	(5)	49.6	60.4	49.5
1957	66.9	94.0	79.6	(5)	83.2	92.8	96.4	48.7	39.2	(5)	44.1	61.6	45.6
1958	68.0	94.1	80.6	(5)	84.5	93.0	96.3	50.2	43.6	(5)	45.7	59.3	48.2
1959	67.6	94.1	76.4	(5)	80.1	92.9	96.8	48.8	42.1	(5)	44.7	57.5	46.8
1960	68.6	94.4	77.2	(5)	81.8	92.8	97.1	50.1	49.3	(5)	50.8	60.3	46.7
1961	68.5	92.7	72.8	(5)	76.8	90.1	96.0	51.1	46.1	(5)	50.9	60.2	48.4
1962	68.8	93.8	74.3	(5)	76.4	92.3	96.3	51.7	38.5	(5)	43.2	61.7	49.8
1963	68.6	93.9	74.2	(5)	78.2	93.5	95.9	51.5	40.3	(5)	43.8	61.3	49.3
1964	69.8	93.7	68.8	(5)	72.5	92.0	96.6	53.0	41.1	(5)	42.6	60.2	51.8

[1] Not available.
[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.
[3] Beginning 1957, data not strictly comparable with earlier years. See footnote 4, table B–1.
[4] Percent of the civilian noninstitutional population in the labor force.
[5] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

NOTE: Because the number of 14 to 15 year olds who are not enrolled in school is very small, the sampling variability for this group is relatively high.

Table B–7. Employment Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 14 to 24 Years Old, by School Enrollment, Sex, and Age, October of 1947–64

Employment status and year	Both sexes, 14 to 24 years	Male						Female					
		Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years
			Total	14 and 15	16 and 17				Total	14 and 15	16 and 17		
	Employed (thousands)												
Enrolled in School													
1947	1,600	1,090	724	(1)	(1)	141	225	510	381	(1)	(1)	84	45
1948	1,794	1,219	814	(1)	(1)	182	223	575	468	(1)	(1)	61	46
1949	1,761	1,113	724	(1)	(1)	156	234	648	477	(1)	(1)	105	67
1950	2,331	1,522	1,028	(1)	(1)	232	262	809	585	(1)	(1)	139	86
1951	2,208	1,370	968	(1)	(1)	166	236	838	638	(1)	(1)	124	76
1952	1,914	1,266	910	(1)	(1)	186	170	648	492	(1)	(1)	74	82
1953 [2]	1,822	1,179	815	375	440	201	163	643	467	197	270	89	87
1954	2,206	1,396	964	441	523	187	245	810	573	199	374	121	116
1955	2,556	1,700	1,124	491	633	297	279	856	598	263	335	124	134
1956	2,856	1,792	1,131	530	601	299	362	1,064	733	306	427	158	173
1957 [3]	2,983	1,869	1,202	556	646	275	392	1,114	750	298	452	161	203
1958	2,886	1,866	1,171	475	696	281	414	1,020	677	280	397	198	145
1959	3,145	1,971	1,250	549	701	299	422	1,174	818	347	471	185	171
1960 [3]	3,150	2,006	1,278	561	717	332	396	1,144	783	326	457	197	164
1961	3,255	2,025	1,211	571	640	343	471	1,230	831	423	408	216	183
1962 [3]	3,562	2,282	1,317	617	700	382	583	1,280	870	392	478	181	229
1963	3,841	2,495	1,446	580	866	393	646	1,356	904	320	584	223	229
1964	3,933	2,508	1,501	571	930	408	599	1,425	961	379	582	215	249
Not Enrolled in School													
1947	10,161	6,009	719	(1)	(1)	1,110	4,180	4,152	422	(1)	(1)	1,074	2,656
1948	9,903	5,969	627	(1)	(1)	1,154	4,187	3,934	392	(1)	(1)	993	2,548
1949	9,221	5,466	521	(1)	(1)	1,068	3,878	3,754	349	(1)	(1)	948	2,457
1950	9,527	5,679	515	(1)	(1)	1,100	4,064	3,848	342	(1)	(1)	904	2,601
1951	8,532	4,864	474	(1)	(1)	1,010	3,380	3,368	264	(1)	(1)	924	2,480
1952	7,800	4,230	506	(1)	(1)	924	2,800	3,570	316	(1)	(1)	894	2,360
1953 [2]	7,499	4,033	442	63	379	971	2,620	3,466	278	21	258	909	2,279
1954	7,070	3,702	343	44	299	892	2,467	3,368	206	25	181	862	2,300
1955	7,651	4,141	357	52	305	908	2,876	3,510	270	21	249	951	2,289
1956	7,593	4,135	360	31	329	845	2,930	3,458	255	18	237	893	2,310
1957 [3]	7,399	4,135	304	24	280	844	2,987	3,264	209	16	193	933	2,122
1958	7,368	4,073	303	48	255	771	2,999	3,295	222	22	200	845	2,228
1959	7,702	4,445	277	28	249	865	3,303	3,257	212	17	195	826	2,219
1960 [3]	8,017	4,604	312	21	291	898	3,394	3,413	237	16	221	922	2,254
1961	8,199	4,660	276	24	252	945	3,439	3,539	213	19	194	1,003	2,323
1962 [3]	8,275	4,616	258	22	236	927	3,431	3,659	193	12	181	991	2,475
1963	8,292	4,677	234	17	217	904	3,539	3,615	152	10	142	964	2,499
1964	8,930	5,006	234	10	224	954	3,818	3,924	174	15	159	961	2,789
	Unemployed (thousands)												
Enrolled in School													
1947	(1)	(1)	20	(1)	(1)	8	(1)	(1)	12	(1)	(1)	5	(1)
1948	61	46	19	(1)	(1)	9	19	15	10	(1)	(1)	3	2
1949	116	84	51	(1)	(1)	8	25	32	25	(1)	(1)	2	6
1950	89	53	38	(1)	(1)	13	2	36	29	(1)	(1)	6	2
1951	82	58	44	(1)	(1)	6	8	24	18	(1)	(1)	2	4
1952	66	44	36	(1)	(1)	6	2	22	20	(1)	(1)	2	0
1953 [2]	66	47	40	7	33	5	2	18	7	0	7	7	5
1954	126	100	67	21	46	13	20	26	19	4	15	5	2
1955	150	101	61	19	42	33	7	49	36	19	17	11	2
1956	151	102	62	17	45	20	20	49	41	4	37	4	4
1957 [3]	178	121	74	26	48	24	23	57	45	12	33	6	6
1958	230	171	105	39	66	28	38	59	40	5	35	13	6
1959	228	157	103	25	78	31	23	71	54	10	44	11	6
1960 [3]	240	165	108	19	89	39	18	75	58	10	48	13	4
1961	296	198	141	46	95	39	18	98	69	16	53	19	10
1962 [3]	310	199	120	34	86	41	38	111	70	21	49	22	19
1963	379	226	151	28	123	40	35	153	103	28	75	30	20
1964	382	224	145	41	104	38	41	158	110	9	101	26	22
Not Enrolled in School													
1947	(1)	(1)	89	(1)	(1)	89	(1)	(1)	42	(1)	(1)	84	(1)
1948	519	335	53	(1)	(1)	94	189	184	29	(1)	(1)	48	107
1949	1,085	714	104	(1)	(1)	146	464	371	50	(1)	(1)	114	207
1950	522	279	63	(1)	(1)	72	144	243	38	(1)	(1)	74	131
1951	388	200	38	(1)	(1)	48	114	188	32	(1)	(1)	60	96
1952	394	208	60	(1)	(1)	36	112	186	34	(1)	(1)	66	86
1953 [2]	324	171	58	2	56	48	66	152	32	2	30	50	71
1954	621	342	64	8	56	63	215	279	51	4	47	95	133
1955	504	259	71	2	69	57	131	245	29	2	27	74	142
1956	480	255	62	9	53	47	146	225	27	5	22	66	132
1957 [3]	576	372	58	7	51	103	211	203	31	0	32	60	112
1958	928	570	96	8	88	153	321	358	62	4	58	104	192
1959	828	486	89	3	86	154	243	342	38	3	35	125	179
1960 [3]	896	520	71	6	65	177	272	376	60	8	52	138	178
1961	1,031	568	77	8	69	170	321	463	50	1	49	170	243
1962 [3]	874	455	46	4	42	138	271	419	42	0	42	139	238
1963	1,022	481	59	3	56	157	265	541	75	0	75	169	297
1964	962	484	39	0	39	146	299	478	59	3	56	174	245

Footnotes at end of table.

Table B–7. Employment Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 14 to 24 Years Old, by School Enrollment, Sex, and Age, October of 1947–64—Continued

Employment status and year	Both sexes, 14 to 24 years	Male						Female					
		Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	Total, 14 to 24 years	14 to 17 years			18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years
			Total	14 and 15	16 and 17				Total	14 and 15	16 and 17		
	Unemployment rate												
Enrolled in School													
1947	(1)	(1)	2.7	(1)	(1)	5.4	(1)	(1)	3.1	(1)	(1)	5.6	(1)
1948	3.3	3.6	2.3	(1)	(1)	4.7	7.9	2.5	2.1	(1)	(1)	(4)	(4)
1949	6.2	7.0	6.6	(1)	(1)	4.9	9.7	4.7	5.0	(1)	(1)	1.9	(4)
1950	3.7	3.4	3.6	(1)	(1)	5.3	.8	4.3	4.7	(1)	(1)	4.2	(4)
1951	3.6	4.1	4.3	(1)	(1)	3.5	3.3	3.0	2.7	(1)	(1)	1.6	(4)
1952	3.3	3.4	3.8	(1)	(1)	3.1	1.2	3.4	3.9	(1)	(1)	(4)	(4)
1953	3.5	3.8	4.7	1.8	7.0	2.4	1.2	2.7	1.5	(1)	2.5	(4)	(4)
1954	5.4	6.7	6.5	4.5	8.1	6.5	7.5	3.1	3.2	2.0	3.9	4.0	1.7
1955	5.5	5.6	5.1	3.7	6.2	10.0	2.4	5.4	5.7	6.7	4.8	8.1	1.5
1956	5.0	5.4	5.2	3.1	7.0	6.3	5.2	4.4	5.3	1.3	8.0	2.5	2.3
1957 [3]	5.6	6.1	5.8	4.5	6.9	8.0	5.5	4.9	5.7	3.9	6.8	3.6	2.9
1958	7.4	8.4	8.2	7.6	8.7	9.1	8.4	5.5	5.6	1.8	8.1	6.2	4.0
1959	6.8	7.4	7.6	4.4	10.0	9.4	5.2	5.7	6.2	2.8	8.5	5.6	3.4
1960	7.1	7.6	7.8	3.3	11.0	10.5	4.3	6.2	6.9	3.0	9.5	6.2	2.4
1961	8.3	8.9	10.4	7.5	12.9	10.2	3.7	7.4	7.7	3.6	11.5	8.1	5.2
1962	8.0	8.0	8.4	5.2	10.9	9.7	6.1	8.0	7.4	5.1	9.3	10.8	7.7
1963	9.0	8.3	9.5	4.6	12.4	9.2	5.1	10.1	10.2	8.0	11.4	11.9	8.0
1964	8.9	8.2	8.8	6.7	10.1	8.5	6.4	10.0	10.3	2.3	14.8	10.8	8.1
Not Enrolled in School													
1947	(1)	(1)	11.0	(1)	(1)	7.4	(1)	(1)	9.1	(1)	(1)	5.0	(1)
1948	5.0	5.3	7.8	(1)	(1)	7.5	4.3	4.5	6.9	(1)	(1)	4.6	4.0
1949	10.5	11.6	16.6	(1)	(1)	12.0	10.7	9.0	12.5	(1)	(1)	10.7	7.8
1950	5.2	4.7	10.9	(1)	(1)	6.1	3.4	5.9	10.0	(1)	(1)	7.6	4.8
1951	4.3	3.8	7.4	(1)	(1)	4.5	3.3	4.5	10.8	(1)	(1)	6.1	3.7
1952	4.8	4.9	10.6	(1)	(1)	3.8	3.8	4.3	9.7	(1)	(1)	6.9	3.5
1953	4.1	4.1	11.6	(4)	12.9	4.7	2.5	4.2	10.3	(4)	10.4	5.2	3.0
1954	8.1	8.5	15.7	(4)	15.8	6.6	8.0	7.7	19.8	(4)	20.6	9.9	5.5
1955	6.2	5.9	16.6	(4)	18.4	5.9	4.4	6.5	9.7	(4)	9.8	7.2	5.8
1956	5.9	5.8	14.7	(4)	13.9	5.3	4.7	6.1	9.6	(4)	8.5	6.9	5.4
1957 [3]	7.2	8.3	16.0	(4)	15.4	10.9	6.6	5.9	12.9	(4)	14.2	6.0	5.0
1958	11.2	12.3	24.1	(4)	25.7	16.6	9.7	9.8	21.8	(4)	22.5	11.0	7.9
1959	9.7	9.9	24.3	(4)	25.7	15.1	6.9	9.5	15.2	(4)	15.2	13.1	7.5
1960	10.1	10.1	18.5	(4)	18.3	16.5	7.4	9.9	20.2	(4)	19.0	13.0	7.3
1961	11.2	10.9	21.8	(4)	21.5	15.2	8.5	11.6	19.0	(4)	20.2	14.5	9.5
1962	9.6	9.0	15.1	(4)	15.1	13.0	7.3	10.3	17.9	(4)	18.8	12.3	8.8
1963	11.0	9.3	20.1	(4)	20.5	14.8	7.0	13.0	33.0	(4)	34.6	14.9	10.6
1964	9.7	8.8	14.3	(4)	14.8	13.3	7.3	10.9	25.3	(4)	26.0	15.3	8.1

[1] Not available.
[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.
[3] Beginning 1957, data not strictly comparable with earlier years. See footnote 4, table B–1.
[4] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

NOTE: Because the number of 14 to 15 year olds who are not enrolled in school is very small, the sampling variability for this group is relatively high.

Table B–8. Employment Status of High School Graduates Not Enrolled in College and of School Dropouts as of October of Year of Graduation or Dropout, by Sex, Color, and Marital Status of Women, 1959–64

[Persons 16 to 24 years of age; numbers in thousands]

Item	June high school graduates							School dropouts						
	Civilian noninstitutional population	Civilian labor force					Not in labor force	Civilian noninstitutional population	Civilian labor force					Not in labor force
		Total		Employed	Unemployed				Total		Employed	Unemployed		
		Number	Percent of population		Number	Percent of civilian labor force			Number	Percent of population		Number	Percent of civilian labor force	
1959 [1]														
Total	790	634	80.2	549	85	13.5	156	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Male	304	279	91.7	239	40	14.3	25	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Female	486	355	73.0	310	45	12.8	131	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Single	418	331	79.2	291	40	12.1	88	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	68	24	(3)	19	5	(3)	43	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
1960 [4]														
Total	921	706	76.7	599	107	15.2	215	344	214	62.2	175	39	18.2	130
Male	348	308	88.5	262	46	14.9	40	165	126	76.4	102	24	19.0	39
Female	573	398	69.5	337	61	15.3	175	179	88	49.2	73	15	(3)	91
Single	473	359	75.9	308	51	14.2	114	110	71	64.5	60	11	(3)	39
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	100	39	39.0	29	10	(3)	61	69	17	(3)	13	4	(3)	52
White	848	653	77.0	568	85	13.0	195	273	163	59.7	133	30	18.4	110
Nonwhite	73	53	(3)	31	22	(3)	20	71	51	(3)	42	9	(3)	20
1961														
Total	916	730	79.7	599	131	17.9	186	354	239	67.5	175	64	26.8	115
Male	345	297	86.1	242	55	18.5	48	179	150	83.8	108	42	28.0	29
Female	571	433	75.8	357	76	17.6	138	175	89	50.9	67	22	(3)	86
Single	482	392	81.3	326	66	16.8	90	119	75	63.0	55	20	(3)	44
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	89	41	(3)	31	10	(3)	48	56	14	(3)	12	2	(3)	42
White	814	651	80.0	545	106	16.3	163	283	189	66.8	134	55	29.1	94
Nonwhite	102	79	77.4	54	25	(3)	23	71	50	(3)	41	9	(3)	21
1962														
Total	938	746	79.5	641	105	14.1	192	285	161	56.5	115	46	28.6	124
Male	392	356	90.8	305	51	14.3	36	126	107	84.9	78	29	27.1	19
Female	546	390	71.4	336	54	13.8	156	159	54	34.0	37	17	(3)	105
Single	469	352	75.1	309	43	12.2	117	83	43	(3)	28	15	(3)	40
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	77	38	(3)	27	11	(3)	39	76	11	(3)	9	2	(3)	65
White	820	657	80.1	568	89	13.5	163	210	113	53.8	83	30	26.5	97
Nonwhite	118	89	75.4	73	16	(3)	29	75	48	(3)	32	16	(3)	27
1963 [5]														
Total	957	755	78.9	619	136	18.0	202	273	180	65.9	123	57	31.7	93
Male	379	340	89.7	275	65	19.1	39	132	110	83.3	85	25	22.7	22
Female	578	415	71.8	344	71	17.1	163	141	70	49.6	38	32	(3)	71
Single	489	368	75.3	311	57	15.5	121	79	50	(3)	25	25	(3)	29
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	89	47	(3)	33	14	(3)	42	62	20	(3)	13	7	(3)	42
White	879	690	78.5	580	110	15.9	189	217	151	69.6	101	50	33.1	66
Nonwhite	78	65	(3)	39	26	(3)	13	56	29	(3)	22	7	(3)	27
1964 [5]														
Total	1,108	863	77.9	702	161	18.7	245	244	152	62.3	101	51	33.6	92
Male	427	388	90.9	338	50	12.9	39	116	97	83.6	72	25	(3)	19
Female	681	475	69.8	364	111	23.4	206	128	55	43.0	29	26	(3)	73
Single	574	432	75.3	334	98	22.7	142	82	39	(3)	19	20	(3)	43
Married, widowed, divorced, separated	107	43	40.2	30	13	(3)	64	46	16	(3)	10	6	(3)	30
White	997	773	77.5	644	129	16.8	224	203	121	59.6	82	39	32.2	82
Nonwhite	111	90	81.1	58	32	(3)	21	41	31	(3)	19	12	(3)	10

[1] Data not available by color.
[2] Not available.
[3] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.
[4] Data include Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1960 and are therefore not strictly comparable with data for 1959.
[5] Also includes persons who graduated in January.

Table B–9. Years of School Completed by the Civilian Labor Force 18 Years Old and Over, by Sex and Color, Selected Dates, 1952–65

Sex, color, and date	Total, 18 years old and over (thousands)	Percent distribution								
		Total	Elementary		High school		College		School years not reported	Median school years completed
			Less than 5 years [1]	5 to 8 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	1 to 3 years	4 years or more		
BOTH SEXES										
Total										
October 1952 [2]	60,772	100.0	7.3	30.2	18.5	26.6	8.3	7.9	1.2	10.9
March 1957	64,384	100.0	6.1	26.8	19.1	29.1	8.5	9.0	1.4	11.6
March 1959	65,842	100.0	5.2	24.8	19.5	30.3	9.2	9.5	1.6	12.0
March 1962 [2]	67,988	100.0	4.6	22.4	19.3	32.1	10.7	11.0	(3)	12.1
March 1964	69,926	100.0	3.7	20.9	19.2	34.5	10.6	11.2	(3)	12.2
March 1965	71,129	100.0	3.7	19.6	19.2	35.5	10.5	11.6	(3)	12.2
White										
October 1952 [2]	(4)	100.0	5.2	29.3	18.7	28.3	8.8	8.5	1.2	11.4
March 1957	(4)	100.0	4.3	25.8	19.0	30.8	9.0	9.7	1.2	12.1
March 1959	58,726	100.0	3.7	23.6	19.4	32.0	9.7	10.2	1.4	12.1
March 1962 [2]	60,451	100.0	3.3	21.4	18.8	33.5	11.3	11.8	(3)	12.2
March 1964	62,213	100.0	2.7	19.8	18.5	36.0	11.1	11.9	(3)	12.2
March 1965	63,261	100.0	2.7	18.9	18.4	36.8	11.0	12.2	(3)	12.3
Nonwhite										
October 1952 [2]	(4)	100.0	26.7	38.7	15.9	10.8	3.7	2.6	1.7	7.6
March 1957	(4)	100.0	21.2	34.9	19.3	14.8	3.9	3.4	2.6	8.4
March 1959	7,116	100.0	17.9	34.3	20.6	15.8	4.5	3.9	3.1	8.7
March 1962 [2]	7,537	100.0	15.4	29.8	23.2	21.0	5.7	4.8	(3)	9.6
March 1964	7,713	100.0	11.6	29.2	24.7	22.2	6.6	5.7	(3)	10.1
March 1965	7,868	100.0	11.8	25.7	24.9	24.4	6.1	7.0	(3)	10.5
MALE										
Total										
October 1952 [2]	41,684	100.0	8.2	32.4	18.6	23.3	8.0	8.0	1.5	10.4
March 1957 [5]	43,721	100.0	7.0	28.8	19.3	25.8	8.2	9.4	1.5	11.1
March 1959	44,286	100.0	6.1	26.6	19.9	26.7	8.9	10.3	1.6	11.5
March 1962 [2]	45,011	100.0	5.4	24.2	19.6	28.7	10.4	11.7	(3)	12.0
March 1964	45,600	100.0	4.4	22.5	19.4	31.1	10.6	12.1	(3)	12.1
March 1965	46,258	100.0	4.4	21.3	19.4	32.0	10.5	12.4	(3)	12.2
White										
October 1952 [2]	(4)	100.0	6.3	31.9	18.9	24.6	8.4	8.5	1.4	10.8
March 1959	39,956	100.0	4.3	25.7	19.9	28.2	9.5	11.0	1.4	11.9
March 1962 [2]	40,503	100.0	3.8	23.4	19.3	29.9	11.0	12.6	(3)	12.1
March 1964	41,028	100.0	3.2	21.7	18.8	32.4	11.1	12.7	(3)	12.2
March 1965	41,652	100.0	3.2	20.7	18.8	33.2	11.0	13.1	(3)	12.2
Nonwhite										
October 1952 [2]	(4)	100.0	29.8	38.3	15.0	9.5	3.4	1.9	2.1	7.2
March 1959	4,330	100.0	21.5	34.6	19.4	13.3	4.1	3.5	3.6	8.3
March 1962 [2]	4,508	100.0	19.3	31.2	22.2	18.3	5.4	3.6	(3)	9.0
March 1964	4,572	100.0	14.8	29.9	24.5	19.1	5.7	6.1	(3)	9.7
March 1965	4,606	100.0	15.4	26.4	24.4	21.4	6.0	6.4	(3)	10.0
FEMALE										
Total										
October 1952 [2]	19,088	100.0	5.4	25.4	18.2	33.8	8.8	7.7	.6	12.0
March 1957 [5]	20,663	100.0	4.2	22.6	18.6	36.1	9.1	8.2	1.2	12.1
March 1959	21,556	100.0	3.5	21.1	18.8	37.6	9.6	7.9	1.4	12.2
March 1962 [2]	22,977	100.0	3.0	18.8	18.8	38.7	11.2	9.5	(3)	12.2
March 1964	24,326	100.0	2.4	17.8	18.8	40.9	10.6	9.5	(3)	12.3
March 1965	24,871	100.0	2.4	16.6	18.7	41.9	10.4	10.0	(3)	12.3
White										
October 1952 [2]	(4)	100.0	2.9	23.4	13.4	36.9	9.6	8.3	.6	12.1
March 1959	18,770	100.0	2.2	19.2	18.3	40.2	10.3	8.5	1.3	12.2
March 1962 [2]	19,948	100.0	2.1	17.4	17.9	40.8	11.9	10.0	(3)	12.3
March 1964	21,185	100.0	1.8	16.2	17.8	43.0	11.0	10.1	(3)	12.3
March 1965	21,609	100.0	1.7	15.3	17.7	43.9	11.0	10.3	(3)	12.3
Nonwhite										
October 1952 [2]	(4)	100.0	22.4	39.2	17.1	12.6	4.0	3.6	1.1	8.1
March 1959	2,786	100.0	12.2	33.9	22.5	19.7	5.0	4.6	2.2	9.4
March 1962 [2]	3,029	100.0	9.8	27.8	24.8	24.9	6.0	6.7	(3)	10.5
March 1964	3,141	100.0	7.0	28.2	25.1	26.6	7.8	5.3	(3)	10.8
March 1965	3,262	100.0	6.7	24.9	25.7	28.6	6.3	7.8	(3)	11.1

[1] Includes persons reporting no school years completed.
[2] See footnote 1, table A–1.
[3] Data for persons whose educational attainment was not reported were distributed among the other categories.
[4] Not available; data published as percent distribution only.
[5] Data by color not available for March 1957.

Table B–10. Median Years of School Completed by the Civilian Noninstitutional Population 18 Years Old and Over, by Employment Status and Sex, Selected Dates, 1952–65

Sex and date	Total, 18 years old and over	Labor force					Not in labor force
		Total	Employed			Unemployed	
			Total	Agriculture	Nonagriculture		
BOTH SEXES							
October 1952	10.6	10.9	10.9	(1)	(1)	10.1	10.0
March 1957	11.0	11.6	11.7	(1)	(1)	9.4	10.2
March 1959	11.4	12.0	12.0	8.6	12.1	9.9	10.5
March 1962	11.9	12.1	12.1	8.7	12.2	10.6	10.7
March 1964	12.0	12.2	12.2	8.8	12.2	10.9	10.9
March 1965	12.1	12.2	12.2	8.8	12.3	11.1	11.1
MALE							
October 1952	10.1	10.4	10.4	(1)	(1)	8.8	8.5
March 1957	10.7	11.1	11.2	(1)	(1)	8.9	8.5
March 1959	11.1	11.5	11.7	8.6	12.0	9.5	8.5
March 1962	11.6	12.0	12.1	8.7	12.1	10.0	8.7
March 1964	12.0	12.1	12.1	8.8	12.2	10.3	8.7
March 1965	12.0	12.2	12.2	8.7	12.2	10.6	8.8
FEMALE							
October 1952	11.0	12.0	12.0	(1)	(1)	11.5	10.4
March 1957	11.4	12.1	12.1	(1)	(1)	10.4	10.7
March 1959	11.7	12.2	12.2	8.8	12.2	10.7	10.9
March 1962	12.0	12.2	12.3	9.4	12.3	11.5	11.2
March 1964	12.1	12.3	12.3	9.5	12.3	11.9	11.5
March 1965	12.1	12.3	12.3	9.4	12.3	11.9	11.7

[1] Not available.

Table B–11. Median Years of School Completed by the Civilian Labor Force 18 Years Old and Over, by Sex and Age, Selected Dates, 1952–65

Sex and date	18 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
BOTH SEXES						
October 1952	12.2	12.1	11.4	8.8		8.3
March 1957	12.3	12.2	12.0	9.5		8.5
March 1959	12.3	12.3	12.1	10.8	8.9	8.6
March 1962	12.4	12.4	12.2	11.6	9.4	8.8
March 1964	12.4	12.4	12.2	12.0	10.0	8.9
March 1965	12.4	12.5	12.3	12.0	10.3	8.9
MALE						
October 1952	11.5	12.1	11.2	8.7		8.2
March 1957	12.1	12.2	11.8	9.0		8.4
March 1959	12.1	12.3	12.1	10.4	8.8	8.5
March 1962	12.3	12.4	12.2	11.1	9.0	8.7
March 1964	12.3	12.4	12.2	11.6	9.3	8.8
March 1965	12.3	12.5	12.3	11.7	9.6	8.8
FEMALE						
October 1952	12.4	12.2	11.9	9.2		8.8
March 1957	12.4	12.3	12.1	10.8		8.8
March 1959	12.4	12.3	12.2	11.7	10.0	8.8
March 1962	12.5	12.4	12.3	12.1	10.7	9.0
March 1964	12.5	12.4	12.3	12.1	11.2	10.2
March 1965	12.5	12.4	12.3	12.2	11.5	9.8

Table B–12. Median Years of School Completed by the Employed Civilian Labor Force 18 Years Old and Over, by Occupation Group, Color, and Sex, Selected Years, March of 1959–65

Sex and occupation group	Total[1]				White				Nonwhite			
	1965	1964	1962	1959	1965	1964	1962	1959	1965	1964	1962	1959
BOTH SEXES												
All occupation groups	12.2	12.2	12.1	12.0	12.3	12.3	12.2	12.1	10.5	10.1	9.6	8.6
Professional and managerial workers	14.2	14.0	13.9	13.5	14.1	14.0	13.9	13.4	16.1	15.4	14.7	15.1
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	16.3	16.2	16.2	16.2	16.3	16.1	16.2	16.2	16.5	16.2	16.2	16.2
Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.4	11.8	10.7	11.0	8.4
Farmers and farm managers, laborers, and foremen	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.6	8.9	8.9	8.8	8.7	5.5	6.1	5.9	5.5
Farmers and farm managers	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.7	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.8	5.9	5.9	5.6	5.2
Farm laborers and foremen	8.4	8.5	8.5	8.3	8.7	8.7	8.8	8.6	5.3	6.2	6.0	5.7
Clerical and sales workers	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.6	12.5	12.4	12.5
Clerical and kindred workers	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5
Sales workers	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.3	12.2	12.0	(2)
Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers, exc. farm and mine	10.8	10.7	10.4	10.0	11.0	10.8	10.6	10.3	9.7	9.6	8.8	8.2
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	11.7	11.5	11.2	11.0	11.8	11.6	11.3	11.0	10.4	10.6	9.0	9.3
Operatives and kindred workers	10.6	10.5	10.1	9.9	10.7	10.6	10.2	10.1	10.2	10.1	9.3	8.7
Laborers, exc. farm and mine	9.5	9.3	8.9	8.6	9.9	9.9	9.4	9.0	8.6	8.4	8.1	6.8
Service workers, including private household	10.8	10.5	10.2	9.7	11.3	11.0	10.7	10.1	9.8	9.3	9.2	8.8
Private household workers	8.9	8.8	8.7	8.4	8.9	9.1	8.9	8.7	8.9	8.6	8.3	7.8
Other service workers	11.3	11.0	10.8	10.3	11.6	11.3	11.0	10.5	10.4	10.0	10.2	9.8
MALE												
All occupation groups	12.2	12.1	12.1	11.7	12.2	12.2	12.1	12.0	10.1	9.7	9.0	8.2
Professional and managerial workers	13.9	13.6	13.5	13.2	13.9	13.6	13.5	13.2	16.0	15.4	12.8	14.8
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	16.4	16.2	16.4	16.4	16.4	16.4	16.4	16.4	16.6	16.5	16.2	16.2
Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.4	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.4	11.5	11.0	10.7	(2)
Farmers and farm managers, laborers, and foremen	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.6	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.7	5.2	5.9	5.6	5.3
Farmers and farm managers	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.7	8.9	8.9	8.8	8.8	5.3	5.3	5.2	5.0
Farm laborers and foremen	8.0	8.2	8.3	7.7	8.4	8.5	8.7	8.3	(2)	6.2	5.7	5.5
Clerical and sales workers	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.6	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.3	12.4	12.4
Clerical and kindred workers	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.6	12.4	12.4	12.4
Sales workers	12.7	12.7	12.7	12.6	12.7	12.7	12.7	12.6	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers, exc. farm and mine	11.0	10.8	10.4	10.1	11.2	11.0	10.7	10.4	9.6	9.4	8.6	7.9
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	11.7	11.5	11.2	11.0	11.8	11.6	11.3	11.0	10.3	10.5	8.9	9.2
Operatives and kindred workers	10.8	10.7	10.2	10.0	11.0	10.8	10.4	10.2	10.0	10.0	8.9	8.4
Laborers, exc. farm and mine	9.5	9.3	8.9	8.5	9.9	9.8	9.4	9.0	8.6	8.3	8.1	6.7
Service workers, including private household	11.1	10.6	10.3	10.1	11.5	11.2	10.7	10.2	10.0	8.9	9.4	9.6
Private household workers	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Other service workers	11.2	10.6	10.4	10.1	11.6	11.3	10.7	10.3	10.0	8.9	9.6	9.6
FEMALE												
All occupation groups	12.3	12.3	12.3	12.2	12.4	12.3	12.3	12.3	11.2	10.8	10.5	9.4
Professional and managerial workers	15.0	15.0	14.7	14.0	14.8	15.0	14.6	14.0	16.3	15.5	16.2	15.6
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	16.2	16.1	16.1	15.9	16.1	16.2	16.0	15.8	16.4	16.1	16.3	16.2
Managers, officials, and proprietors, exc. farm	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.2	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.3	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Farmers and farm managers, laborers, and foremen	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.7	9.5	9.4	9.3	8.9	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Farmers and farm managers	9.0	9.1	9.0	8.5	9.5	9.8	9.5	8.5	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Farm laborers and foremen	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.8	9.4	9.3	9.2	9.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Clerical and sales workers	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.5
Clerical and kindred workers	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.6	12.7	12.5	12.6
Sales workers	12.2	12.2	12.1	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.1	12.2	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Craftsmen, operatives, and laborers, exc. farm and mine	10.2	10.1	10.0	9.8	10.2	10.0	9.9	9.8	10.6	10.7	10.0	9.5
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	11.8	11.2	9.2	11.2	11.7	11.2	11.1	11.1	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Operatives and kindred workers	10.1	10.0	9.9	9.7	10.1	9.9	9.8	9.8	10.6	10.5	10.0	9.4
Laborers, exc. farm and mine	9.6	(2)	10.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Service workers, including private household	10.6	10.4	10.2	9.5	11.1	10.9	10.7	10.0	9.7	9.5	9.2	8.6
Private household workers	8.9	8.8	8.7	8.4	8.9	9.1	8.9	8.7	8.9	8.6	8.3	7.8
Other service workers	11.4	11.2	11.1	10.5	11.6	11.3	11.3	10.6	10.7	10.8	10.7	10.0

[1] Data for 1948, 1952, and 1957 for the total only were shown in the *Manpower Report of the President* for earlier years.

[2] Median not shown where base is less than 100,000.

Table B–13. Persons With Two Jobs or More, by Industry and Class of Worker of Primary and Secondary Job, Selected Dates, 1956–65

Industry and class of worker	May of—				December of—		July of—		
	1965	1964	1963	1962	1960	1959	1958	1957	1956
PRIMARY JOB									
Number (thousands)									
Total holding 2 or more jobs	3,756	3,726	3,921	3,342	3,012	2,966	3,099	3,570	3,653
Agriculture	416	405	386	304	332	321	629	858	866
Wage and salary workers	133	139	146	102	97	104	264	285	295
Self-employed workers	218	230	195	210	208	199	264	385	402
Unpaid family workers	65	36	45	52	27	18	101	188	169
Nonagricultural industries	3,340	3,321	3,535	2,978	2,680	2,645	2,470	2,712	2,787
Wage and salary workers	3,131	3,135	3,361	2,764	2,489	2,451	2,257	2,447	2,569
Self-employed workers	200	175	169	194	184	182	198	237	200
Unpaid family workers	9	11	5	20	7	12	15	28	18
Percent of Total Employed									
Total holding 2 or more jobs	5.2	5.2	5.7	4.9	4.6	4.5	4.8	5.3	5.5
Agriculture	8.1	8.1	7.5	6.7	6.7	6.7	9.3	11.0	11.2
Wage and salary workers	8.4	8.8	8.8	6.2	6.7	7.7	13.2	12.1	13.4
Self-employed workers	8.6	9.3	7.5	7.5	7.6	7.2	8.1	10.7	10.9
Unpaid family workers	6.5	3.7	4.8	5.2	3.6	2.5	6.9	10.0	9.4
Nonagricultural industries	5.0	5.0	5.5	4.7	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.6	4.7
Wage and salary workers	5.2	5.3	5.9	5.0	4.6	4.6	4.4	4.7	4.9
Self-employed workers	3.0	2.7	2.7	3.0	2.8	2.8	3.1	3.7	3.3
Unpaid family workers	1.5	1.9	.9	2.9	1.1	2.0	2.2	3.9	2.7
SECONDARY JOB									
Number (thousands)									
Total holding 2 or more jobs	3,756	3,726	3,921	3,342	3,012	2,966	3,099	3,570	3,653
Agriculture	786	801	825	645	587	649	850	1,035	1,111
Wage and salary workers	167	185	188	176	135	130	362	506	485
Self-employed workers	619	616	637	469	452	519	488	529	626
Nonagricultural industries	2,970	2,925	3,096	2,697	2,425	2,317	2,249	2,535	2,542
Wage and salary workers	2,389	2,367	2,481	2,176	2,025	1,907	1,905	2,187	2,202
Self-employed workers	581	558	615	521	400	410	344	348	340

NOTE: Persons whose only extra job is as an unpaid family worker are not counted as dual jobholders.

Data include Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1960 and are therefore not strictly comparable with earlier years.

Table B–14. Persons With Work Experience During the Year, by Extent of Employment and by Sex, 1950–64

[Persons 14 years of age and over]

Sex and year	Number who worked during year (thousands) [1]									Percent distribution							
	Total	Full time [2]				Part time				Total	Full time [2]				Part time			
		Total	50 to 52 weeks	27 to 49 weeks	1 to 26 weeks	Total	50 to 52 weeks	27 to 49 weeks	1 to 26 weeks		Total	50 to 52 weeks	27 to 49 weeks	1 to 26 weeks	Total	50 to 52 weeks	27 to 49 weeks	1 to 26 weeks
Both Sexes																		
1950	68,876	58,181	38,375	11,795	8,013	10,695	3,322	2,214	5,162	100.0	84.5	55.7	17.1	11.6	15.5	4.8	3.2	7.5
1951	69,962	59,544	40,142	12,018	7,384	10,418	3,144	2,240	5,034	100.0	85.1	57.4	17.2	10.6	14.9	4.5	3.2	7.2
1952 [3]	70,512	60,294	40,486	12,374	7,434	10,218	3,092	2,294	4,832	100.0	85.5	57.4	17.5	10.5	14.5	4.4	3.3	6.9
1953 [3]	70,682	60,532	41,601	12,003	6,928	10,150	3,270	2,333	4,547	100.0	85.6	58.9	17.0	9.8	14.4	4.6	3.3	6.4
1954	71,797	60,059	40,080	12,025	7,954	11,738	3,701	2,663	5,374	100.0	83.7	55.8	16.7	11.1	16.3	5.2	3.7	7.5
1955	75,353	62,581	42,624	11,952	8,005	12,772	4,773	2,573	5,426	100.0	83.1	56.6	15.9	10.6	16.9	6.3	3.4	7.2
1956	75,852	62,437	42,778	11,791	7,868	13,415	4,760	2,693	5,962	100.0	82.3	56.4	15.5	10.4	17.7	6.3	3.6	7.9
1957	77,664	62,874	42,818	11,981	8,075	14,790	4,989	2,872	6,929	100.0	81.0	55.1	15.4	10.4	19.0	6.4	3.7	8.9
1958	77,117	61,676	41,329	11,546	8,799	15,441	5,402	3,025	7,014	100.0	80.0	53.6	15.0	11.4	20.0	7.0	3.9	9.1
1959 [4]	78,162	63,004	42,030	12,515	8,459	15,158	5,173	3,104	6,881	100.0	80.6	53.8	16.0	10.8	19.4	6.6	4.0	8.8
1960	80,618	64,153	43,265	12,132	8,756	16,465	5,307	3,290	7,868	100.0	79.6	53.7	15.0	10.9	20.4	6.6	4.1	9.8
1961	80,287	64,218	43,006	12,042	9,170	16,069	5,191	3,068	7,810	100.0	80.0	53.6	15.0	11.4	20.0	6.5	3.8	9.7
1962	82,057	65,327	44,079	12,102	9,146	16,730	5,130	3,368	8,232	100.0	79.6	53.7	14.7	11.1	20.4	6.3	4.1	10.0
1963	83,227	66,167	45,449	11,565	9,153	17,060	5,229	3,353	8,478	100.0	79.5	54.6	13.9	11.0	20.5	6.3	4.0	10.2
1964	85,124	67,825	46,846	11,691	9,288	17,299	5,268	3,374	8,657	100.0	79.6	55.0	13.7	10.9	20.3	6.2	4.0	10.2
Male																		
1950	45,526	41,042	29,783	7,624	3,636	4,484	1,406	1,004	2,074	100.0	90.2	65.4	16.7	8.0	9.8	3.1	2.2	4.6
1951	45,364	41,338	30,894	7,518	2,926	4,026	1,310	918	1,798	100.0	91.1	68.1	16.6	6.4	8.9	2.9	2.0	4.0
1952 [3]	45,704	41,816	30,878	7,922	3,016	3,888	1,178	896	1,814	100.0	91.5	67.6	17.3	6.6	8.5	2.6	2.0	4.0
1953 [3]	46,146	42,059	31,902	7,317	2,840	4,087	1,341	1,055	1,691	100.0	91.1	69.1	15.9	6.2	8.9	2.9	2.3	3.7
1954	46,318	41,404	30,389	7,567	3,448	4,914	1,552	1,227	2,135	100.0	89.4	65.6	16.3	7.4	10.6	3.4	2.6	4.6
1955	47,624	42,814	32,127	7,356	3,331	4,810	1,930	1,066	1,814	100.0	89.9	67.5	15.5	7.0	10.1	4.1	2.2	3.8
1956	47,904	42,704	32,342	7,218	3,144	5,200	1,920	1,074	2,206	100.0	89.1	67.5	15.1	6.6	10.9	4.0	2.2	4.6
1957	48,709	42,886	32,089	7,350	3,447	5,823	2,135	1,115	2,573	100.0	88.0	65.9	15.1	7.1	12.0	4.4	2.3	5.3
1958	48,380	42,052	30,727	7,233	4,091	6,328	2,348	1,259	2,721	100.0	86.9	63.5	15.0	8.5	13.1	4.9	2.6	5.6
1959 [4]	48,973	42,997	31,502	7,830	3,665	5,976	2,211	1,224	2,541	100.0	87.8	64.3	16.0	7.5	12.2	4.5	2.5	5.2
1960	50,033	43,476	31,966	7,653	3,857	6,557	2,247	1,267	3,043	100.0	86.9	63.9	15.3	7.7	13.1	4.5	2.5	6.1
1961	49,854	43,467	31,769	7,434	4,264	6,387	2,240	1,163	2,984	100.0	87.2	63.7	14.9	8.6	12.8	4.5	2.3	6.0
1962	50,639	43,987	32,513	7,185	4,289	6,652	2,114	1,305	3,233	100.0	86.9	64.2	14.2	8.5	13.1	4.2	2.6	6.4
1963	51,039	44,294	33,587	6,686	4,021	6,745	2,098	1,274	3,373	100.0	86.8	65.8	13.1	7.9	13.2	4.1	2.5	6.6
1964	51,978	45,313	34,428	6,723	4,162	6,665	2,164	1,220	3,281	100.0	87.1	66.2	12.9	8.0	12.8	4.2	2.3	6.3
Female																		
1950	23,350	17,139	8,592	4,171	4,377	6,211	1,916	1,210	3,088	100.0	73.4	36.8	17.9	18.7	26.6	8.2	5.1	13.2
1951	24,598	18,206	9,248	4,500	4,458	6,392	1,834	1,322	3,236	100.0	74.0	37.6	18.3	18.1	26.0	7.5	5.4	13.2
1952 [3]	24,808	18,478	9,608	4,452	4,418	6,330	1,914	1,398	3,018	100.0	74.5	38.7	17.9	17.8	25.5	7.7	5.6	12.2
1953 [3]	24,536	18,473	9,699	4,686	4,088	6,063	1,929	1,278	2,856	100.0	75.3	39.5	19.1	16.7	24.7	7.9	5.2	11.6
1954	25,479	18,655	9,691	4,458	4,506	6,824	2,149	1,436	3,239	100.0	73.2	38.0	17.5	17.7	26.8	8.4	5.6	12.7
1955	27,729	19,767	10,497	4,596	4,674	7,962	2,843	1,507	3,612	100.0	71.3	37.9	16.5	16.9	28.7	10.3	5.4	13.0
1956	27,948	19,733	10,436	4,573	4,724	8,215	2,840	1,619	3,756	100.0	70.6	37.3	16.4	16.9	29.4	10.2	5.8	13.4
1957	28,955	19,988	10,729	4,631	4,628	8,967	2,854	1,757	4,356	100.0	69.0	37.0	16.0	16.0	31.0	9.9	6.1	15.0
1958	28,736	19,623	10,602	4,313	4,708	9,113	3,054	1,766	4,293	100.0	68.3	36.9	15.0	16.4	31.7	10.6	6.1	14.9
1959 [4]	29,189	20,007	10,528	4,685	4,794	9,182	2,962	1,880	4,340	100.0	68.5	36.1	16.1	16.4	31.5	10.1	6.4	14.9
1960	30,585	20,677	11,299	4,479	4,899	9,908	3,060	2,023	4,825	100.0	67.6	36.9	14.6	16.0	32.4	10.0	6.6	15.8
1961	30,433	20,751	11,237	4,608	4,906	9,682	2,951	1,905	4,826	100.0	68.2	36.9	15.1	16.1	31.8	9.7	6.3	15.9
1962	31,418	21,340	11,566	4,917	4,857	10,078	3,016	2,063	4,999	100.0	67.9	36.8	15.6	15.5	32.1	9.6	6.6	15.9
1963	32,188	21,873	11,862	4,879	5,132	10,315	3,131	2,079	5,105	100.0	68.0	36.9	15.2	15.9	32.0	9.7	6.5	15.9
1964	33,146	22,512	12,418	4,968	5,126	10,634	3,104	2,154	5,376	100.0	68.0	37.5	15.0	15.5	32.1	9.4	6.5	16.2

[1] Time worked includes paid vacation and paid sick leave.

[2] Usually worked 35 hours or more a week.

[3] Not strictly comparable with earlier years because of the introduction of data from the 1950 Census into the estimation procedure. The number with work experience was raised about 120,000 between 1951 and 1952 and an additional 230,000 between 1952 and 1953.

[4] Data include Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1959 and are therefore not strictly comparable with earlier years. For 1959 this inclusion resulted in an increase of about 300,000 in the total who worked during the year, with about 150,000 in the group working 50 to 52 weeks at full-time jobs.

Table B–15. Persons With Work Experience During the Year, by Industry Group and Class of Worker of Longest Job, 1955–64

[Thousands of persons 14 years of age and over]

Industry group and class of worker	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959 [1]	1958	1957	1956	1955
All industry groups	85,124	83,227	82,057	80,287	80,618	78,162	77,117	77,664	75,852	75,353
Agriculture	7,051	6,796	7,179	7,502	7,902	7,924	8,291	8,355	8,560	9,261
Wage and salary workers	2,695	2,725	2,794	2,780	2,667	2,752	2,771	2,469	2,428	2,476
Self-employed workers	2,496	2,396	2,601	2,836	3,012	2,992	3,141	3,358	3,594	3,921
Unpaid family workers	1,860	1,675	1,784	1,886	2,223	2,180	2,379	2,528	2,538	2,864
Nonagricultural industries	78,073	76,431	74,878	72,785	72,716	70,238	68,826	69,308	67,292	66,092
Wage and salary workers	70,331	68,444	67,006	64,534	64,549	62,439	61,077	61,767	60,191	58,839
Forestry and fisheries	116	115	121	107	85	105	118	795	830	868
Mining	587	569	639	673	626	684	650			
Construction	4,501	4,216	4,235	4,096	4,042	4,099	4,277	4,022	3,732	3,779
Manufacturing	20,364	20,076	19,533	18,255	18,815	18,941	17,864	19,409	19,304	18,503
Durable goods	11,475	11,285	10,934	10,043	10,532	10,522	10,034	11,112	11,099	10,495
Lumber and wood products	636	613	574	550	536	608	658	(2)	(2)	(2)
Furniture and fixtures	460	470	458	389	383	427	394	(2)	(2)	(2)
Stone, clay, and glass products	632	562	576	531	596	508	505	(2)	(2)	(2)
Primary metal industries	1,334	1,308	1,168	1,098	1,260	1,294	1,123	(2)	(2)	(2)
Fabricated metal products	1,533	1,635	1,527	1,409	1,189	1,185	1,195	(2)	(2)	(2)
Machinery	1,973	1,775	1,840	1,719	1,765	1,661	1,575	(2)	(2)	(2)
Electrical equipment	1,670	1,799	1,814	1,588	1,524	1,509	1,278	(2)	(2)	(2)
Transportation equipment	2,139	2,077	1,960	1,759	2,303	2,424	2,364	(2)	(2)	(2)
Automobiles	1,005	949	928	881	1,018	1,050	1,033	(2)	(2)	(2)
Other transportation equipment	1,134	1,128	1,032	878	1,284	1,374	1,331	(2)	(2)	(2)
Other durable goods	1,098	1,046	1,017	1,000	976	908	942	(2)	(2)	(2)
Nondurable goods	8,889	8,791	8,599	8,212	8,283	8,419	7,830	8,297	8,205	8,008
Food and kindred products	2,093	2,117	2,133	2,028	1,909	1,892	1,697	(2)	(2)	(2)
Textile mill products	1,109	1,082	959	911	1,064	1,135	1,088	(2)	(2)	(2)
Apparel and related products	1,558	1,466	1,487	1,327	1,378	1,414	1,288	(2)	(2)	(2)
Printing and publishing	1,258	1,387	1,332	1,289	1,307	1,256	1,238	(2)	(2)	(2)
Chemicals and allied products	1,063	1,004	949	984	882	964	964	(2)	(2)	(2)
Other nondurable goods	1,808	1,735	1,739	1,673	1,743	1,758	1,555	(2)	(2)	(2)
Transportation and public utilities	4,843	4,916	4,711	4,518	4,768	4,865	4,657	4,887	4,874	4,896
Railroads and railway express service	896	910	932	925	975	1,042	1,118	(2)	(2)	(2)
Other transportation	1,916	1,920	1,810	1,590	1,764	1,788	1,692	(2)	(2)	(2)
Communications	913	922	860	912	944	919	844	(2)	(2)	(2)
Other public utilities	1,118	1,164	1,109	1,091	1,084	1,116	1,003	(2)	(2)	(2)
Wholesale and retail trade	14,012	13,358	13,462	13,033	13,040	12,525	12,638	12,407	12,251	12,351
Wholesale trade	2,388	2,260	2,337	2,458	2,452	2,394	2,381	(2)	(2)	(2)
Retail trade	11,624	11,098	11,125	10,575	10,588	10,131	10,257	(2)	(2)	(2)
Finance, insurance, real estate; and service	21,872	21,151	20,387	20,126	19,501	17,807	17,530	16,929	16,091	15,387
Finance, insurance, and real estate	3,331	3,264	3,052	3,061	3,171	2,797	2,568	(2)	(2)	(2)
Business and repair services	1,667	1,647	1,646	1,471	1,468	1,390	1,359	(2)	(2)	(2)
Private households	3,849	3,772	3,916	3,964	3,692	3,522	3,507	3,370	3,064	3,222
Personal services, excluding private households	2,173	2,018	1,895	2,145	2,058	1,794	1,913	(2)	(2)	(2)
Entertainment and recreation services	768	848	795	852	759	701	792	(2)	(2)	(2)
Medical and other health services	3,393	3,287	3,092	2,915	2,878	2,686	2,445	(2)	(2)	(2)
Welfare and religious services	825	790	783	736	729	609	717	(2)	(2)	(2)
Educational services	4,808	4,556	4,325	4,101	3,781	3,443	3,432	(2)	(2)	(2)
Other professional services	1,058	969	883	861	964	865	797	(2)	(2)	(2)
Public administration	4,036	4,043	3,918	3,726	3,671	3,413	3,343	3,318	3,109	3,055
Self-employed workers	6,614	6,790	6,782	7,170	6,971	6,748	6,672	6,587	6,192	6,289
Unpaid family workers	1,128	1,197	1,090	1,081	1,196	1,051	1,077	954	909	964

[1] See footnote 4, table B–14.

[2] Not available.

Table B–16. Percent of Persons With Work Experience During the Year Who Worked Year-Round at Full-Time Jobs, by Industry Group and Class of Worker of Longest Job, 1950–64

Industry group and class of worker	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950
All industry groups	55.0	54.6	53.7	53.6	53.7	53.8	53.6	55.1	56.4	56.6	55.8	58.9	57.4	57.4	55.7
Agriculture	37.7	37.6	37.9	40.9	38.9	39.6	39.4	41.5	43.4	46.6	45.4	45.2	45.3	45.7	47.0
Wage and salary workers	22.0	22.5	21.2	23.8	22.9	21.9	20.9	23.0	25.5	31.5	28.3	34.9	28.1	29.5	32.3
Self-employed workers	73.6	72.7	72.5	74.8	71.1	74.8	74.9	77.1	77.3	81.5	77.2	74.9	75.5	76.4	75.9
Unpaid family workers	12.3	11.8	13.5	15.3	14.4	13.7	14.3	12.3	12.6	12.0	10.8	7.3	10.9	12.7	13.4
Nonagricultural industries	56.6	56.1	55.2	54.9	55.3	55.4	55.3	56.8	58.0	58.0	57.3	60.7	59.1	59.2	57.1
Wage and salary workers	56.3	55.8	54.9	54.6	54.8	54.7	54.6	56.1	57.3	57.1	55.9	59.9	58.4	58.5	56.4
Forestry and fisheries	44.0	32.2	45.5	29.0	[1]	41.9	50.0	64.7	63.4	57.5	46.7	55.9	51.0	61.8	39.9
Mining	67.5	68.2	67.6	64.8	65.2	58.7	58.2								
Construction	48.8	45.8	43.2	41.5	41.8	43.6	40.6	45.7	47.8	46.3	41.6	46.8	47.7	47.8	41.4
Manufacturing	67.7	67.1	64.8	63.7	64.3	62.5	62.3	63.3	64.0	64.5	61.9	67.5	63.3	63.6	61.9
Durable goods	70.7	70.7	67.6	65.9	66.0	62.9	62.4	66.4	65.8	67.7	66.5	70.2	66.9	68.5	64.7
Lumber and wood products	52.8	50.1	50.3	46.9	48.3	55.3	49.5	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Furniture and fixtures	67.0	65.7	64.8	63.5	58.7	65.0	52.8	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Stone, clay, and glass products	72.9	72.4	62.0	64.0	63.4	66.0	63.4	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Primary metal industries	80.1	73.9	69.1	67.8	63.5	47.8	65.4	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Fabricated metal products	70.4	71.1	71.0	68.6	71.6	68.4	69.3	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Machinery	76.7	76.3	73.3	73.7	73.0	72.4	66.5	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Electrical equipment	73.5	70.5	70.1	71.3	69.6	69.1	68.2	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Transportation equipment	67.7	75.2	70.1	61.0	65.4	61.5	58.6	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Automobiles	58.1	70.8	67.8	52.3	54.6	44.9	39.0	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Other transportation equipment	76.3	78.8	72.2	69.7	74.0	74.2	73.9	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Other durable goods	60.7	61.9	55.7	58.8	59.6	56.2	57.9	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Nondurable goods	63.8	62.4	61.3	61.1	62.1	62.0	62.0	59.2	61.6	60.4	55.9	64.0	59.2	58.1	59.0
Food and kindred products	64.0	63.2	61.3	58.4	61.4	61.0	60.5	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Textile mill products	65.7	64.2	59.0	59.2	62.5	63.2	58.4	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Apparel and related products	47.1	45.4	44.0	44.8	38.6	44.5	43.9	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Printing and publishing	54.3	52.2	51.4	54.5	60.1	57.7	59.5	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Chemicals and allied products	79.3	76.6	77.1	79.4	82.2	74.6	79.1	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Other nondurable goods	74.3	74.6	76.3	72.7	72.6	72.4	72.6	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Transportation and public utilities	75.4	72.8	72.2	73.2	71.7	71.4	72.0	72.2	74.3	71.6	71.2	74.4	74.8	73.9	73.6
Railroads and railway express service	78.6	77.3	73.3	77.0	73.5	74.1	75.1	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Other transportation	66.8	64.1	63.4	62.8	62.8	64.1	60.0	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Communications	78.0	73.8	77.7	76.1	74.5	71.1	77.1	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Other public utilities	85.3	82.7	81.4	82.5	81.9	80.6	84.5	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Wholesale and retail trade	46.8	46.5	47.5	48.4	47.0	48.2	49.2	49.5	50.0	50.1	51.1	53.8	53.2	53.7	52.8
Wholesale trade	70.8	68.1	67.1	70.1	66.2	64.1	66.6	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Retail trade	41.8	42.2	43.4	43.3	42.5	44.5	45.2	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Finance, insurance, real estate; and service	44.5	44.4	43.9	44.3	45.3	44.5	44.7	46.0	47.4	47.5	46.7	48.5	48.8	47.9	46.9
Finance, insurance, and real estate	68.2	68.6	67.3	66.0	66.1	68.8	67.8	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Business and repair services	53.7	53.7	55.8	53.8	53.7	55.3	59.4	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Private households	13.5	13.8	15.4	16.6	17.5	16.6	17.5	17.4	21.6	20.7	23.0	23.6	[2]	[2]	[2]
Personal services, excluding private households	37.4	41.8	41.2	42.7	43.6	41.8	43.3	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Entertainment and recreation services	24.6	26.6	26.8	28.6	29.1	30.9	28.3	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Medical and other health services	55.5	54.2	55.1	53.9	55.1	55.1	53.4	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Welfare and religious services	53.1	51.8	56.4	59.5	55.0	48.6	54.1	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Educational services	43.2	41.8	40.3	42.4	43.0	40.5	42.5	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Other professional services	61.2	59.8	56.9	60.7	59.1	58.5	59.6	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Public administration	79.8	78.8	78.3	77.8	75.0	77.7	78.5	77.8	78.2	79.0	78.5	80.4	80.2	76.0	75.8
Self-employed workers	65.0	65.1	63.1	61.9	65.4	66.4	66.9	67.2	70.1	70.7	71.5	71.6	68.9	69.2	67.3
Unpaid family workers	27.0	23.6	25.8	25.1	23.6	24.0	24.3	25.8	27.3	27.8	37.3	26.0	22.5	21.1	25.5

[1] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

[2] Not available.

Table B–17. Extent of Unemployment During the Year, by Sex, 1957–64

[Persons 14 years of age and over]

Item	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959 [1]	1958	1957
	Number (thousands)							
Both Sexes								
Total working or looking for work	86,837	85,038	83,944	81,963	82,204	79,494	78,787	78,585
Percent with unemployment	16.2	16.7	18.2	18.4	17.2	15.3	17.9	14.7
Number with unemployment	14,052	14,211	15,256	15,096	14,151	12,195	14,120	11,568
Did not work but looked for work	1,713	1,811	1,887	1,676	1,586	1,332	1,670	921
Worked during year	12,339	12,400	13,369	13,420	12,565	10,863	12,449	10,647
Year-round workers [2] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment	1,121	1,239	1,129	1,036	1,062	840	1,180	1,119
Part-year workers [3] with unemployment of:	11,218	11,161	12,240	12,384	11,503	10,023	11,269	9,528
1 to 4 weeks	3,060	2,708	2,993	3,098	2,834	2,569	2,387	2,443
5 to 10 weeks	2,550	2,407	2,759	2,559	2,704	2,348	2,367	2,339
11 to 14 weeks	1,514	1,595	1,700	1,669	1,517	1,403	1,479	1,394
15 to 26 weeks	2,444	2,622	2,768	2,849	2,466	1,070	2,556	1,898
27 weeks or more	1,650	1,840	2,020	2,209	1,982	1,633	2,482	1,454
Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment	4,755	4,635	5,219	4,963	4,602	4,228	5,117	4,377
2 spells	2,342	2,246	2,524	2,299	2,034	1,813	(4)	(4)
3 spells or more	2,413	2,389	2,695	2,664	2,568	2,415	(4)	(4)
Male								
Total working or looking for work	52,645	51,817	51,412	50,610	50,686	49,523	49,158	49,444
Percent with unemployment	16.3	17.2	18.8	19.4	18.4	16.5	19.6	15.7
Number with unemployment	8,563	8,923	9,686	9,846	9,318	8,163	9,645	7,758
Did not work but looked for work	667	778	773	756	653	550	778	735
Worked during year	7,896	8,145	8,913	9,090	8,665	7,613	8,867	7,023
Year-round workers [2] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment	815	934	817	791	779	657	863	447
Part-year workers [3] with unemployment of:	7,081	7,211	8,096	8,299	7,886	6,956	8,004	6,576
1 to 4 weeks	1,675	1,521	1,668	1,709	1,651	1,472	1,435	1,475
5 to 10 weeks	1,706	1,609	1,891	1,878	1,907	1,688	1,692	1,646
11 to 14 weeks	1,038	1,122	1,194	1,217	1,123	1,031	1,094	1,030
15 to 26 weeks	1,605	1,802	1,960	2,027	1,821	1,564	1,950	1,385
27 weeks or more	1,057	1,157	1,383	1,468	1,384	1,201	1,835	1,039
Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment	3,314	3,269	3,805	3,618	3,430	3,173	3,850	3,171
2 spells	1,576	1,526	1,788	1,603	1,453	1,293	(4)	(4)
3 spells or more	1,738	1,743	2,017	2,015	1,977	1,880	(4)	(4)
Female								
Total working or looking for work	34,192	33,221	32,532	31,353	31,518	29,971	29,628	29,141
Percent with unemployment	16.1	15.9	17.1	16.7	15.3	13.5	15.1	13.1
Number with unemployment	5,489	5,288	5,570	5,250	4,833	4,032	4,474	3,810
Did not work but looked for work	1,046	1,033	1,114	920	993	782	892	186
Worked during year	4,443	4,255	4,456	4,330	3,900	3,250	3,582	3,624
Year-round workers [2] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment	306	305	312	245	283	184	317	672
Part-year workers [3] with unemployment of:	4,137	3,950	4,144	4,085	3,617	3,067	3,265	2,952
1 to 4 weeks	1,385	1,187	1,325	1,389	1,183	1,097	952	968
5 to 10 weeks	844	798	868	681	797	660	675	693
11 to 14 weeks	476	473	506	452	394	372	385	363
15 to 26 weeks	839	809	808	822	645	506	606	513
27 weeks or more	593	683	637	741	598	432	647	415
Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment	1,441	1,366	1,414	1,345	1,172	1,055	1,267	1,206
2 spells	766	720	736	696	581	520	(4)	(4)
3 spells or more	675	646	678	649	591	535	(4)	(4)

Footnotes at end of table.

Table B–17. Extent of Unemployment During the Year, by Sex, 1957–64—Continued

Item	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959[1]	1958	1957
	Percent distribution of unemployed persons with work experience during the year							
BOTH SEXES								
Total who worked during year	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Year-round workers [2] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment	9.1	10.0	8.4	7.7	8.5	7.7	9.5	10.5
Part-year workers [3] with unemployment of:	90.9	90.0	91.6	92.3	91.5	92.3	90.5	89.5
1 to 4 weeks	24.8	21.8	22.4	23.1	22.6	23.6	19.2	22.9
5 to 10 weeks	20.7	19.4	20.6	19.1	21.5	21.6	19.0	22.0
11 to 14 weeks	12.3	12.9	12.7	12.4	12.1	12.9	11.9	13.1
15 to 26 weeks	19.8	21.1	20.7	21.2	19.6	19.1	20.5	17.8
27 weeks or more	13.4	14.8	15.1	16.5	15.8	15.0	19.9	13.7
Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment	38.5	37.4	39.0	37.0	36.6	38.9	41.1	41.1
2 spells	19.0	18.1	18.9	17.1	16.2	16.7	[4]	[4]
3 spells or more	19.6	19.3	20.2	19.8	20.4	22.2	[4]	[4]
MALE								
Total who worked during year	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Year-round workers [2] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment	10.3	11.5	9.2	8.7	9.0	8.6	9.7	6.4
Part-year workers [3] with unemployment of:	89.7	88.5	90.8	91.3	91.0	91.4	90.3	93.6
1 to 4 weeks	21.2	18.7	18.7	18.8	19.1	19.3	16.2	21.0
5 to 10 weeks	21.6	19.8	21.2	20.7	22.0	22.2	19.1	23.4
11 to 14 weeks	13.1	13.8	13.4	13.4	13.0	13.5	12.3	14.7
15 to 26 weeks	20.3	22.1	22.0	22.3	21.0	20.5	22.0	19.7
27 weeks or more	13.4	14.2	15.5	16.1	16.0	15.8	20.7	14.8
Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment	42.0	40.1	42.7	39.8	39.6	41.7	43.4	45.2
2 spells	20.0	18.7	20.1	17.6	16.8	17.0	[4]	[4]
3 spells or more	22.0	21.4	22.6	22.2	22.8	24.7	[4]	[4]
FEMALE								
Total who worked during year	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Year-round workers [2] with 1 or 2 weeks of unemployment	6.9	7.2	7.0	5.7	7.3	5.7	8.8	18.5
Part-year workers [3] with unemployment of:	93.1	92.8	93.0	94.3	92.7	94.4	91.2	81.5
1 to 4 weeks	31.2	27.9	29.7	32.1	30.3	33.8	26.6	26.7
5 to 10 weeks	19.0	18.8	19.5	15.7	20.4	20.3	18.8	19.1
11 to 14 weeks	10.7	11.1	11.4	10.4	10.1	11.4	10.7	10.0
15 to 26 weeks	18.9	19.0	18.1	19.0	16.5	15.6	16.9	14.2
27 weeks or more	13.3	16.1	14.3	17.1	15.3	13.3	18.1	11.5
Total with 2 or more spells of unemployment	32.4	32.1	31.7	31.1	30.1	32.5	35.4	33.3
2 spells	17.2	16.9	16.5	16.1	14.9	16.0	[4]	[4]
3 spells or more	15.2	15.2	15.2	15.0	15.2	16.5	[4]	[4]

[1] Data include Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1959 and are therefore not strictly comparable with earlier years. This inclusion resulted in an increase of about 50,000 in the total with unemployment in 1959.

[2] Worked 50 weeks or more.
[3] Worked less than 50 weeks.
[4] Not available.

Table C–1. Total Employment on Payrolls of Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Division: Annual Averages, 1947–65

Year	Total	Mining	Contract construction	Manufacturing			Transportation and public utilities	Wholesale and retail trade			Finance, insurance, real estate	Service and miscellaneous	Government		
				Total	Durable goods	Nondurable goods		Total	Wholesale	Retail			Total	Federal [1]	State and local
	Number (thousands)														
1947	43,881	955	1,982	15,545	8,385	7,159	4,166	8,955	2,361	6,595	1,754	5,050	5,474	1,892	3,582
1948	44,891	994	2,169	15,582	8,326	7,256	4,189	9,272	2,489	6,783	1,829	5,206	5,650	1,863	3,787
1949	43,778	930	2,165	14,441	7,489	6,953	4,001	9,264	2,487	6,778	1,857	5,264	5,856	1,908	3,948
1950	45,222	901	2,333	15,241	8,094	7,147	4,034	9,386	2,518	6,868	1,919	5,382	6,026	1,928	4,098
1951	47,849	929	2,603	16,393	9,089	7,304	4,226	9,742	2,606	7,136	1,991	5,576	6,389	2,302	4,087
1952	48,825	898	2,634	16,632	9,349	7,284	4,248	10,004	2,687	7,317	2,069	5,730	6,609	2,420	4,188
1953	50,232	866	2,623	17,549	10,110	7,438	4,290	10,247	2,727	7,520	2,146	5,867	6,645	2,305	4,340
1954	49,022	791	2,612	16,314	9,129	7,185	4,084	10,235	2,739	7,496	2,234	6,002	6,751	2,188	4,563
1955	50,675	792	2,802	16,882	9,541	7,340	4,141	10,535	2,796	7,740	2,335	6,274	6,914	2,187	4,727
1956	52,408	822	2,999	17,243	9,834	7,409	4,244	10,858	2,884	7,974	2,429	6,536	7,277	2,209	5,069
1957	52,894	828	2,923	17,174	9,856	7,319	4,241	10,886	2,893	7,992	2,477	6,749	7,616	2,217	5,399
1958	51,368	751	2,778	15,945	8,830	7,116	3,976	10,750	2,848	7,902	2,519	6,811	7,839	2,191	5,648
1959 [2]	53,297	732	2,960	16,675	9,373	7,303	4,011	11,127	2,946	8,182	2,594	7,115	8,083	2,233	5,850
1960	54,203	712	2,885	16,796	9,459	7,336	4,004	11,391	3,004	8,388	2,669	7,392	8,353	2,270	6,083
1961	53,989	672	2,816	16,326	9,070	7,256	3,903	11,337	2,993	8,344	2,731	7,610	8,594	2,279	6,315
1962	55,515	650	2,902	16,853	9,481	7,372	3,906	11,566	3,056	8,511	2,800	7,947	8,890	2,340	6,550
1963	56,602	635	2,963	16,995	9,616	7,380	3,903	11,778	3,104	8,675	2,877	8,226	9,225	2,358	6,868
1964	58,156	633	3,056	17,259	9,813	7,446	3,947	12,132	3,173	8,959	2,964	8,569	9,595	2,348	7,248
1965 [3]	60,432	628	3,211	17,984	10,379	7,604	4,031	12,585	3,263	9,322	3,043	8,903	10,046	2,379	7,667
	Percent distribution														
1947	100.0	2.2	4.5	35.4	19.1	16.3	9.5	20.4	5.4	15.0	4.0	11.5	12.5	4.3	8.2
1948	100.0	2.2	4.8	34.7	18.5	16.2	9.3	20.7	5.5	15.1	4.1	11.6	12.6	4.2	8.4
1949	100.0	2.1	4.9	33.0	17.1	15.9	9.1	21.2	5.7	15.5	4.2	12.0	13.4	4.4	9.0
1950	100.0	2.0	5.2	33.7	17.9	15.8	8.9	20.8	5.6	15.2	4.2	11.9	13.3	4.3	9.1
1951	100.0	1.9	5.4	34.3	19.0	15.3	8.8	20.4	5.4	14.9	4.2	11.7	13.4	4.8	8.5
1952	100.0	1.8	5.4	34.1	19.1	14.9	8.7	20.5	5.5	15.0	4.2	11.7	13.5	5.0	8.6
1953	100.0	1.7	5.2	34.9	20.1	14.8	8.5	20.4	5.4	15.0	4.3	11.7	13.2	4.6	8.6
1954	100.0	1.6	5.3	33.3	18.6	14.7	8.3	20.9	5.6	15.3	4.6	12.2	13.8	4.5	9.3
1955	100.0	1.6	5.5	33.3	18.8	14.5	8.2	20.8	5.5	15.3	4.6	12.4	13.6	4.3	9.3
1956	100.0	1.6	5.7	32.9	18.8	14.1	8.1	20.7	5.5	15.2	4.6	12.5	13.9	4.2	9.7
1957	100.0	1.6	5.5	32.5	18.6	13.8	8.0	20.6	5.5	15.1	4.7	12.8	14.4	4.2	10.2
1958	100.0	1.5	5.4	31.0	17.2	13.9	7.7	20.9	5.5	15.4	4.9	13.3	15.3	4.3	11.0
1959 [2]	100.0	1.4	5.6	31.3	17.6	13.7	7.5	20.9	5.5	15.4	4.9	13.3	15.2	4.2	11.0
1960	100.0	1.3	5.3	31.0	17.5	13.5	7.4	21.0	5.5	15.5	4.9	13.6	15.4	4.2	11.2
1961	100.0	1.2	5.2	30.2	16.8	13.4	7.2	21.0	5.5	15.5	5.1	14.1	15.9	4.2	11.7
1962	100.0	1.2	5.2	30.4	17.1	13.3	7.0	20.8	5.5	15.3	5.0	14.3	16.0	4.2	11.8
1963	100.0	1.1	5.2	30.0	17.0	13.0	6.9	20.8	5.5	15.3	5.1	14.5	16.3	4.2	12.1
1964	100.0	1.1	5.3	29.7	16.9	12.8	6.8	20.9	5.5	15.4	5.1	14.7	16.5	4.0	12.5
1965 [3]	100.0	1.0	5.3	29.8	17.2	12.6	6.7	20.8	5.4	15.4	5.0	14.7	16.6	3.9	12.7

[1] Data are prepared by the U.S. Civil Service Commission and relate to civilian employment only, excluding the Central Intelligence and National Security Agencies.

[2] Data include Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1959 and are therefore not strictly comparable with previous years. This inclusion has resulted in an increase of about 200,000 in the 1959 average of total nonagricultural employment.

[3] Preliminary.

NOTE: Data for recent years have been revised as a result of the adjustment to March 1964 benchmark levels.

Table C–2. Total Employment on Payrolls of Manufacturing Industries: Annual Averages, 1947–65

[Thousands]

Industry	1965 [1]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959 [2]	1958	1957
Manufacturing	17,984	17,259	16,995	16,853	16,326	16,796	16,675	15,945	17,174
Durable goods	10,379	9,813	9,616	9,480	9,070	9,459	9,373	8,830	9,856
Ordnance and accessories	236.4	247.1	265.5	264.4	244.2	220.0	203.5	158.1	140.2
Lumber and wood products	605.8	602.5	592.6	589.3	582.9	626.8	658.8	615.0	655.3
Furniture and fixtures	429.1	405.9	389.9	385.1	367.5	383.0	385.0	360.8	374.3
Stone, clay, and glass products	620.9	611.8	600.8	592.3	582.0	604.0	604.0	562.4	595.4
Primary metal industries	1,292.5	1,231.2	1,172.2	1,165.6	1,142.7	1,231.2	1,182.6	1,153.5	1,355.3
Blast furnace and basic steel products	661.2	629.4	589.9	592.8	595.5	651.4	587.3	601.1	719.9
Fabricated metal products	1,260.8	1,187.3	1,150.1	1,127.7	1,084.5	1,135.3	1,122.5	1,076.9	1,167.3
Machinery	1,713.9	1,606.1	1,529.3	1,493.2	1,418.6	1,479.0	1,452.1	1,362.4	1,585.9
Electrical equipment	1,671.1	1,548.4	1,553.9	1,567.0	1,473.3	1,467.1	1,396.4	1,249.0	1,343.8
Transportation equipment	1,739.3	1,604.8	1,609.7	1,547.0	1,448.6	1,568.9	1,635.0	1,594.6	1,909.1
Motor vehicles and equipment	853.9	755.4	741.3	691.7	632.3	724.1	692.3	606.5	769.3
Aircraft and parts	616.9	603.7	639.2	638.4	609.7	627.9	720.6	771.0	895.8
Instruments and related products	384.8	369.3	364.8	358.7	347.4	354.3	345.3	323.8	342.1
Miscellaneous manufacturing	424.4	398.5	386.8	389.6	378.2	389.9	387.7	373.0	387.2
Nondurable goods	7,604	7,446	7,380	7,373	7,256	7,336	7,303	7,116	7,319
Food and kindred products	1,737.7	1,745.8	1,752.0	1,763.0	1,775.2	1,790.0	1,789.6	1,772.8	1,805.4
Tobacco manufactures	83.5	89.1	88.6	90.5	90.7	94.0	94.5	94.5	97.0
Textile mill products	919.3	891.1	885.4	902.3	893.4	924.4	945.7	918.8	981.1
Apparel and related products	1,350.8	1,302.0	1,282.8	1,263.7	1,214.5	1,233.2	1,225.9	1,171.8	1,210.1
Paper and allied products	637.5	625.2	618.5	614.4	601.3	601.1	587.2	564.1	570.6
Printing and publishing	977.3	950.5	930.6	926.4	917.3	911.3	888.5	872.6	870.0
Chemicals and allied products	902.7	877.4	865.3	848.5	828.2	828.2	809.2	794.1	810.0
Petroleum and related products	178.1	182.7	188.7	195.3	201.9	211.9	215.5	223.8	232.2
Rubber and plastic products	463.9	433.6	418.5	408.4	375.3	379.0	372.7	344.3	371.9
Leather and leather products	353.7	348.4	349.2	360.7	358.2	363.4	374.0	359.2	372.7

Industry	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Manufacturing	17,243	16,882	16,314	17,549	16,632	16,393	15,241	14,441	15,582	15,545
Durable goods	9,834	9,541	9,129	10,110	9,349	9,089	8,094	7,489	8,326	8,385
Ordnance and accessories	138.5	141.2	163.3	234.3	178.7	77.0	30	26	28	27
Lumber and wood products	730.9	739.6	707.9	770.7	790.4	840.2	808	741	818	845
Furniture and fixtures	375.5	363.8	341.9	369.9	357.1	357.2	364	317	346	336
Stone, clay, and glass products	605.3	588.4	552.6	581.3	564.0	587.0	547	514	549	537
Primary metal industries	1,355.3	1,322.5	1,219.3	1,383.1	1,282.1	1,364.3	1,247	1,134	1,290	1,279
Blast furnace and basic steel products	706.6	706.9	645.5	726.1	638.0	714.4	674	610	679	656
Fabricated metal products	1,140.4	1,122.4	1,069.9	1,156.4	1,064.4	1,077.8	982	881	979	989
Machinery	1,571.6	1,448.5	1,417.7	1,554.4	1,517.4	1,456.6	1,210	1,182	1,372	1,375
Electrical equipment	1,323.1	1,240.8	1,190.4	1,333.3	1,185.0	1,113.6	991	862	991	1,035
Transportation equipment	1,852.5	1,854.6	1,754.1	1,969.1	1,703.2	1,515.1	1,265	1,210	1,270	1,275
Motor vehicles and equipment	792.5	891.2	765.7	917.3	777.5	833.3	816	751	781	768
Aircraft and parts	837.3	761.3	782.9	795.5	670.6	467.8	283	264	238	239
Instruments and related products	337.8	323.2	321.2	337.1	312.5	294.3	250	239	262	267
Miscellaneous manufacturing	403.0	396.2	390.7	420.9	393.7	406.0	400	385	422	421
Nondurable goods	7,409	7,340	7,185	7,438	7,284	7,304	7,147	6,953	7,256	7,159
Food and kindred products	1,841.9	1,824.7	1,818.3	1,838.9	1,827.8	1,823.2	1,790	1,778	1,801	1,799
Tobacco manufactures	99.6	102.5	103.3	103.6	105.6	104.1	103	109	114	118
Textile mill products	1,032.0	1,050.2	1,042.3	1,154.8	1,163.4	1,237.7	1,256	1,187	1,332	1,299
Apparel and related products	1,223.4	1,219.2	1,183.6	1,248.0	1,216.4	1,207.2	1,202	1,173	1,190	1,154
Paper and allied products	567.8	550.0	531.1	530.4	503.7	511.2	485	455	473	465
Printing and publishing	862.0	834.7	813.9	802.8	779.9	767.6	748	740	740	721
Chemicals and allied products	796.5	773.1	752.7	768.2	730.1	707.0	640	618	655	649
Petroleum and related products	235.5	237.1	238.1	241.4	234.6	231.3	218	221	228	221
Rubber and plastic products	369.2	363.3	328.4	361.0	338.3	334.4	311	283	312	323
Leather and leather products	382.7	385.9	373.0	389.2	384.2	380.0	395	389	412	412

[1] Preliminary.
[2] See footnote 2, table C–1.

NOTE: Data for recent years have been revised as a result of the adjustment to March 1964 benchmark levels.

Table C–3. Production or Nonsupervisory Workers [1] on Payrolls of Selected Industries: Annual Averages, 1947–65

[Thousands]

Industry	1965 [2]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959 [3]	1958	1957
Mining	492	496	498	512	532	570	590	611	695
Contract construction	2,730	2,602	2,523	2,462	2,390	2,459	2,538	2,384	2,537
Manufacturing	13,376	12,769	12,555	12,488	12,083	12,586	12,603	11,997	13,189
Durable goods	7,692	7,209	7,027	6,935	6,618	7,028	7,033	6,579	7,550
Ordnance and accessories	102.3	106.1	115.2	119.3	110.6	101.9	98.0	82.4	80.4
Lumber and wood products	531.9	530.2	526.6	526.7	518.4	561.1	592.2	549.4	588.0
Furniture and fixtures	356.4	337.1	324.1	319.6	303.9	318.5	321.0	298.7	313.0
Stone, clay, and glass products	498.7	492.2	483.9	477.7	469.4	491.8	496.2	457.9	492.8
Primary metal industries	1,055.7	1,001.9	947.4	937.3	914.6	993.8	953.8	928.0	1,117.9
Blast furnace and basic steel products	541.7	515.8	479.1	476.3	478.4	528.4	470.9	486.5	600.1
Fabricated metal products	976.3	912.5	881.6	863.7	826.0	874.3	868.5	824.5	913.2
Machinery	1,199.2	1,117.8	1,059.2	1,037.8	976.4	1,035.9	1,027.2	945.5	1,143.1
Electrical equipment	1,145.0	1,038.5	1,034.3	1,050.7	979.4	996.3	969.4	857.3	958.7
Transportation equipment	1,240.3	1,120.3	1,112.3	1,059.9	992.7	1,107.4	1,163.4	1,120.6	1,395.0
Motor vehicles and equipment	667.7	581.1	573.6	534.0	479.1	563.3	537.5	452.5	601.7
Aircraft and parts	351.7	337.7	350.8	349.1	347.7	369.6	445.7	491.9	591.4
Instruments and related products	246.3	233.8	232.3	229.1	223.1	232.6	230.3	214.8	233.1
Miscellaneous manufacturing	339.8	318.7	310.4	313.2	303.5	314.3	312.9	299.5	315.3
Nondurable goods	5,684	5,560	5,527	5,553	5,465	5,559	5,570	5,419	5,638
Food and kindred products	1,146.9	1,154.3	1,167.1	1,178.4	1,191.1	1,211.8	1,222.1	1,222.0	1,263.2
Tobacco manufactures	72.0	77.4	76.6	78.7	79.6	83.3	83.9	84.1	85.3
Textile mill products	821.2	797.5	793.4	812.1	805.0	835.1	857.4	832.5	893.3
Apparel and related products	1,202.6	1,157.8	1,138.0	1,122.9	1,079.6	1,098.2	1,091.4	1,039.5	1,072.0
Paper and allied products	497.1	488.7	486.4	486.0	478.0	479.7	471.8	454.1	463.4
Printing and publishing	619.6	601.4	590.3	594.5	591.7	588.9	575.1	563.2	563.7
Chemicals and allied products	542.9	528.6	525.3	519.3	505.0	509.9	505.6	493.7	519.7
Petroleum and related products	110.1	113.6	119.9	125.5	129.9	137.9	139.9	146.9	156.6
Rubber and plastic products	361.0	334.7	322.7	316.5	288.3	292.8	289.8	264.4	290.1
Leather and leather products	310.8	306.3	307.8	318.9	316.4	320.9	332.9	318.2	331.0
Wholesale and retail trade [4]	11,238	10,845	8,929	8,794	8,674	8,766	8,588	8,311	8,474
Wholesale trade	2,771	2,705	2,656	2,625	2,584	2,605	2,562	2,477	2,541
Retail trade [4]	8,468	8,140	6,273	6,168	6,090	6,161	6,026	5,835	5,933

Industry	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Mining	701	680	686	765	801	840	816	839	906	871
Contract construction	2,613	2,440	2,281	2,305	2,324	2,308	2,069	1,919	1,924	1,759
Manufacturing	13,436	13,288	12,817	14,055	13,359	13,368	12,523	11,790	12,910	12,990
Durable goods	7,669	7,548	7,194	8,154	7,550	7,480	6,705	6,122	6,925	7,028
Ordnance and accessories	84.9	91.7	113.1	173.6	130.2	59.3	23	20	23	22
Lumber and wood products	661.8	672.3	640.4	699.9	719.9	771.2	745	680	757	783
Furniture and fixtures	315.5	307.0	287.7	315.9	305.6	307.1	317	274	304	296
Stone, clay, and glass products	507.0	495.6	464.3	493.6	479.8	507.1	473	443	479	471
Primary metal industries	1,131.6	1,115.8	1,017.9	1,172.6	1,084.7	1,175.1	1,075	968	1,121	1,114
Blast furnace and basic steel products	595.4	604.5	546.1	620.4	541.5	620.2	586.8	526.8	593.9	575.0
Fabricated metal products	900.7	897.8	851.1	937.4	859.4	883.0	812	714	809	826
Machinery	1,158.5	1,069.2	1,046.2	1,182.9	1,163.9	1,129.7	929	900	1,074	1,087
Electrical equipment	975.4	924.2	883.8	1,028.6	909.1	865.8	770	638	761	810
Transportation equipment	1,364.3	1,414.1	1,331.4	1,542.9	1,331.4	1,213.1	1,029	976	1,027	1,039
Motor vehicles and equipment	619.5	718.3	601.5	739.4	618.7	681.8	677.1	613.4	631.9	626.4
Aircraft and parts	561.0	525.5	560.2	586.2	495.4	348.4	209.4	196.6	175.2	176.7
Instruments and related products	236.1	229.6	231.0	249.3	233.2	222.3	189	181	205	213
Miscellaneous manufacturing	333.1	330.4	326.6	356.7	332.5	346.1	344	327	365	367
Nondurable goods	5,767	5,740	5,623	5,901	5,810	5,888	5,817	5,669	5,986	5,962
Food and kindred products	1,302.1	1,291.7	1,296.6	1,329.7	1,330.9	1,338.4	1,331	1,341	1,374	1,395
Tobacco manufactures	90.1	94.4	95.2	95.7	97.2	96.0	95	101	106	110
Textile mill products	944.3	961.6	953.2	1,063.9	1,073.2	1,146.2	1,169	1,103	1,248	1,220
Apparel and related products	1,088.1	1,086.4	1,053.4	1,114.8	1,087.2	1,081.3	1,080	1,053	1,073	1,047
Paper and allied products	464.5	453.5	440.8	442.9	421.9	435.1	416	390	408	406
Printing and publishing	559.6	539.0	524.9	522.0	509.7	504.5	494	488	494	487
Chemicals and allied products	525.7	518.1	503.0	522.9	506.1	502.5	461	449	485	488
Petroleum and related products	161.2	163.2	166.9	173.2	168.9	172.5	165	169	175	170
Rubber and plastic products	290.7	288.3	256.7	287.8	269.9	270.5	252	226	253	263
Leather and leather products	340.9	344.0	332.5	348.7	344.4	340.8	355	348	369	374
Wholesale and retail trade [4]	8,487	8,271	8,087	8,137	7,988	7,785	7,489	7,367	7,399	7,070
Wholesale trade	2,547	2,479	2,442	2,459	2,439	2,365	2,294	2,267	2,274	2,165
Retail trade [4]	5,940	5,792	5,645	5,678	5,549	5,419	5,194	5,101	5,125	4,906

[1] For mining and manufacturing, data refer to production and related workers; for contract construction, to construction workers; for wholesale and retail trade, to nonsupervisory workers.

[2] Preliminary.

[3] See footnote 2, table C–1.

[4] Excludes eating and drinking places prior to 1964.

NOTE: Data for recent years have been revised as a result of the adjustment to March 1964 benchmark levels.

Table C–4. Nonproduction-Worker Employment on Payrolls of Major Manufacturing Industries, and Ratios to Total Employment: Annual Averages, 1947–65

Major industry group	1965 [1]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959 [2]	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
	Number (thousands)																		
Manufacturing	4,608	4,490	4,440	4,365	4,243	4,210	4,072	3,948	3,985	3,807	3,594	3,497	3,494	3,273	3,025	2,718	2,651	2,672	2,555
Durable goods	2,687	2,604	2,589	2,545	2,452	2,431	2,340	2,251	2,306	2,165	1,993	1,935	1,956	1,799	1,609	1,389	1,367	1,401	1,357
Ordnance and accessories	134	141	150	145	134	118	106	76	60	54	49	50	60	49	18	7	6	5	5
Lumber and wood products	74	72	66	63	65	66	67	66	67	69	68	68	71	70	69	63	61	61	62
Furniture and fixtures	73	69	66	66	64	64	64	62	61	60	57	54	54	51	50	47	43	42	40
Stone, clay, and glass products	122	120	117	115	113	112	108	104	102	98	92	89	87	84	80	74	71	70	66
Primary metal industries	237	229	225	228	228	237	229	226	227	223	207	201	210	197	189	172	166	169	165
Fabricated metal products	285	275	269	264	259	261	254	252	254	239	224	219	219	205	195	170	167	170	163
Machinery	515	488	470	455	442	443	425	416	443	413	380	372	371	353	327	281	282	298	288
Electrical equipment	526	510	520	516	494	471	427	392	385	348	317	306	304	276	248	221	224	230	225
Transportation equipment	499	485	497	487	456	462	472	474	514	489	441	423	426	372	302	236	234	243	236
Instruments and related products	139	136	133	130	124	121	115	109	109	102	93	90	87	80	72	61	58	57	54
Miscellaneous manufacturing	85	80	76	76	74	76	75	73	72	70	66	64	64	61	60	56	58	57	54
Nondurable goods	1,920	1,886	1,853	1,820	1,791	1,777	1,733	1,697	1,681	1,642	1,600	1,562	1,537	1,474	1,416	1,330	1,284	1,270	1,197
Food and kindred products	591	592	585	585	584	578	568	551	542	540	533	521	509	497	485	459	437	427	404
Tobacco manufactures	12	12	12	12	11	11	11	11	12	10	9	8	8	9	8	8	8	8	8
Textile mill products	98	94	92	90	88	89	89	86	88	88	88	89	91	90	92	87	84	84	79
Apparel and related products	148	144	145	141	135	135	135	132	138	135	133	131	133	129	126	122	120	117	107
Paper and allied products	140	137	132	128	123	121	115	110	108	103	96	90	87	82	76	69	65	65	59
Printing and publishing	358	349	340	332	325	322	314	310	306	302	296	289	281	270	263	254	252	246	234
Chemicals and allied products	360	349	340	329	323	318	303	300	290	271	255	250	245	224	204	179	169	170	161
Petroleum and related products	68	69	69	70	72	74	76	77	75	75	74	71	68	66	58	53	52	53	51
Rubber and plastic products	103	99	96	92	87	86	83	80	82	78	75	71	73	68	63	59	57	59	60
Leather and leather products	43	42	41	42	42	42	41	41	42	42	42	40	40	40	39	40	41	43	38
	Nonproduction workers as percent of total employment																		
Manufacturing	25.6	26.0	26.1	25.9	26.0	25.1	24.4	24.8	23.2	22.1	21.3	21.4	19.9	19.7	18.5	17.8	18.4	17.1	16.4
Durable goods	25.9	26.5	26.9	26.8	27.0	25.7	25.0	25.5	23.4	22.0	20.9	21.2	19.3	19.2	17.7	17.2	18.3	16.8	16.2
Ordnance and accessories [3]	56.7	57.1	56.4	54.9	54.9	53.6	52.0	48.1	42.7	38.7	35.1	30.7	25.9	27.1	23.0	23.3	23.1	17.9	18.5
Lumber and wood products	12.2	12.0	11.1	10.6	11.1	10.5	10.2	10.7	10.2	9.4	9.2	9.6	9.2	8.9	8.2	7.8	8.2	7.5	7.3
Furniture and fixtures	16.9	17.0	16.9	17.0	17.4	16.7	16.6	17.2	16.3	16.0	15.7	15.8	14.6	14.3	14.0	12.9	13.6	12.1	11.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	19.7	19.6	19.5	19.3	19.4	18.5	17.9	18.5	17.1	16.2	15.6	16.1	15.0	14.9	13.6	13.5	13.8	12.8	12.3
Primary metal industries	18.3	18.6	19.2	19.6	19.9	19.3	19.4	19.6	17.5	16.5	15.6	16.5	15.2	15.4	13.9	13.8	14.6	13.1	12.9
Fabricated metal products	22.6	23.2	23.4	23.4	23.9	23.0	22.6	23.4	21.8	21.0	20.0	20.5	18.9	19.3	18.1	17.3	19.0	17.4	16.5
Machinery	30.0	30.4	30.7	30.5	31.2	30.0	29.3	30.5	27.9	26.3	26.2	26.2	23.9	23.3	22.4	23.2	23.9	21.7	20.9
Electrical equipment	31.5	32.9	33.5	32.9	33.5	32.1	30.6	31.4	28.6	26.3	25.5	25.7	22.8	23.3	22.3	22.3	26.0	23.2	21.7
Transportation equipment	28.7	30.2	30.9	31.5	31.5	29.4	28.9	29.7	26.9	26.4	23.8	24.1	21.6	21.8	19.9	18.7	19.3	19.1	18.5
Instruments and related products	36.0	36.9	36.4	36.1	35.7	34.2	33.3	33.6	31.9	30.2	28.8	28.0	25.8	25.6	24.5	24.4	24.3	21.8	20.2
Miscellaneous manufacturing	19.9	20.1	19.6	19.6	19.6	19.5	19.3	19.6	18.6	17.4	16.7	16.4	15.2	15.5	14.8	14.0	15.1	13.5	12.8
Nondurable goods	25.2	25.3	25.1	24.7	24.7	24.2	23.7	23.8	23.0	22.2	21.8	21.7	20.7	20.2	19.4	18.6	18.5	17.5	16.7
Food and kindred products	34.0	33.9	33.4	33.2	32.9	32.3	31.7	31.1	30.0	29.3	29.2	28.7	27.7	27.2	26.6	25.6	24.6	23.7	22.5
Tobacco manufactures	13.8	13.5	13.5	13.0	12.1	11.7	11.6	11.6	12.4	10.0	8.7	7.8	7.7	8.5	7.7	7.8	7.3	7.0	6.8
Textile mill products	10.7	10.5	10.4	10.0	9.9	9.6	9.4	9.4	9.0	8.5	8.4	8.5	7.9	7.7	7.4	6.9	7.1	6.3	6.1
Apparel and related products	11.0	11.1	11.3	11.1	11.1	10.9	11.0	11.3	11.4	11.0	10.9	11.1	10.7	10.6	10.4	10.1	10.2	9.8	9.3
Paper and allied products	22.0	21.9	21.4	20.9	20.5	20.1	19.6	19.5	18.9	18.1	17.5	16.9	16.4	16.3	14.9	14.2	14.3	13.7	12.7
Printing and publishing	36.6	36.7	36.5	35.8	35.4	35.3	35.3	35.5	35.2	35.0	35.4	35.5	35.0	34.6	34.2	34.0	34.1	33.2	32.5
Chemicals and allied products	39.9	39.8	39.3	38.8	39.0	38.4	37.5	37.8	35.8	34.0	33.0	33.2	31.9	30.7	28.9	28.0	27.3	26.0	24.8
Petroleum and related products	38.2	37.7	36.5	35.7	35.6	34.9	35.2	34.4	32.3	31.8	31.2	29.8	28.2	28.1	25.1	24.3	23.5	23.2	23.1
Rubber and plastic products	22.2	22.8	23.0	22.5	23.2	22.7	22.3	23.3	22.0	21.1	20.7	21.6	20.2	20.1	18.9	19.0	20.1	18.9	18.6
Leather and leather products	12.1	12.1	11.7	11.6	11.7	11.6	11.0	11.4	11.3	11.0	10.9	10.7	10.3	10.4	10.3	10.1	10.5	10.4	9.2

[1] Preliminary.
[2] See footnote 2, table C–1.
[3] Ratios are based on unrounded data prior to 1959.

NOTE: Data for recent years have been revised as a result of the adjustment to March 1964 benchmark levels.

Table C–5. Gross Average Hourly Earnings of Production or Nonsupervisory Workers [1] on Payrolls of Selected Industries: Annual Averages, 1947–65

Industry	1965 [2]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
Mining	$2.92	$2.81	$2.75	$2.70	$2.64	$2.61	$2.56	$2.47	$2.46
Contract construction	3.68	3.55	3.41	3.31	3.20	3.08	2.93	2.82	2.71
Manufacturing	2.61	2.53	2.46	2.39	2.32	2.26	2.19	2.11	2.05
Durable goods	2.79	2.71	2.63	2.56	2.49	2.43	2.36	2.26	2.19
Ordnance and accessories	3.12	3.02	2.93	2.83	2.75	2.65	2.57	2.51	2.36
Lumber and wood products	2.16	2.11	2.04	1.99	1.95	1.89	1.87	1.79	1.74
Furniture and fixtures	2.11	2.05	2.00	1.95	1.91	1.88	1.83	1.78	1.75
Stone, clay, and glass products	2.62	2.53	2.47	2.41	2.34	2.28	2.22	2.12	2.05
Primary metal industries	3.18	3.11	3.04	2.98	2.90	2.81	2.77	2.64	2.50
Fabricated metal products	2.76	2.67	2.61	2.55	2.49	2.43	2.35	2.25	2.16
Machinery	2.95	2.87	2.78	2.71	2.62	2.55	2.48	2.37	2.29
Electrical equipment	2.58	2.51	2.46	2.40	2.35	2.28	2.20	2.12	2.04
Transportation equipment	3.21	3.09	3.01	2.91	2.80	2.74	2.64	2.51	2.39
Instruments and related products	2.61	2.54	2.49	2.44	2.38	2.31	2.24	2.15	2.06
Miscellaneous manufacturing	2.13	2.08	2.03	1.98	1.92	1.89	1.84	1.79	1.75
Nondurable goods	2.36	2.29	2.22	2.17	2.11	2.05	1.98	1.91	1.85
Food and kindred products	2.43	2.37	2.30	2.24	2.17	2.11	2.02	1.94	1.85
Tobacco manufactures	2.11	1.96	1.91	1.85	1.78	1.70	1.64	1.59	1.53
Textile mill products	1.87	1.79	1.71	1.68	1.63	1.61	1.56	1.49	1.49
Apparel and related products	1.83	1.79	1.73	1.69	1.64	1.59	1.56	1.54	1.51
Paper and allied products	2.65	2.56	2.48	2.40	2.34	2.26	2.18	2.10	2.02
Printing and publishing	3.06	2.97	2.89	2.82	2.75	2.68	2.59	2.49	2.40
Chemicals and allied products	2.89	2.80	2.72	2.65	2.58	2.50	2.40	2.29	2.20
Petroleum and related products	3.28	3.19	3.16	3.05	3.01	2.89	2.85	2.73	2.66
Rubber and plastic products	2.61	2.54	2.47	2.44	2.38	2.32	2.27	2.19	2.11
Leather and leather products	1.88	1.82	1.76	1.72	1.68	1.64	1.59	1.56	1.52
Wholesale and retail trade [3]	2.03	1.96	2.01	1.94	1.87	1.81	1.76	1.70	1.64
Wholesale trade	2.60	2.52	2.45	2.37	2.31	2.24	2.18	2.09	2.02
Retail trade [3]	1.82	1.75	1.80	1.74	1.68	1.62	1.57	1.52	1.47

Industry	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Mining	$2.33	$2.20	$2.14	$2.14	$2.01	$1.93	$1.77	$1.72	$1.66	$1.47
Contract construction	2.57	2.45	2.39	2.28	2.13	2.02	1.86	1.79	1.71	1.54
Manufacturing	1.95	1.86	1.78	1.74	1.65	1.56	1.44	1.38	1.33	1.22
Durable goods	2.08	1.99	1.90	1.86	1.75	1.65	1.52	1.45	1.40	1.28
Ordnance and accessories	2.21	2.07	2.00	1.92	1.82	1.71	1.56	1.48	1.39	1.31
Lumber and wood products	1.69	1.62	1.57	1.55	1.49	1.41	1.30	1.22	1.19	1.09
Furniture and fixtures	1.69	1.62	1.57	1.54	1.47	1.39	1.28	1.23	1.19	1.10
Stone, clay, and glass products	1.96	1.86	1.77	1.72	1.61	1.54	1.44	1.37	1.31	1.19
Primary metal industries	2.36	2.24	2.10	2.06	1.90	1.81	1.65	1.59	1.52	1.39
Fabricated metal products	2.05	1.96	1.88	1.83	1.72	1.64	1.52	1.45	1.38	1.26
Machinery	2.20	2.08	2.00	1.95	1.85	1.75	1.60	1.52	1.46	1.34
Electrical equipment	1.95	1.84	1.79	1.74	1.65	1.56	1.44	1.41	1.36	1.25
Transportation equipment	2.29	2.21	2.11	2.05	1.95	1.84	1.72	1.64	1.57	1.44
Instruments and related products	1.97	1.87	1.80	1.75	1.69	1.59	1.45	1.37	1.31	1.20
Miscellaneous manufacturing	1.69	1.61	1.56	1.52	1.45	1.36	1.28	1.22	1.18	1.11
Nondurable goods	1.77	1.67	1.62	1.58	1.51	1.44	1.35	1.30	1.25	1.14
Food and kindred products	1.76	1.66	1.59	1.53	1.44	1.35	1.26	1.21	1.15	1.06
Tobacco manufactures	1.45	1.34	1.30	1.25	1.18	1.14	1.08	1.00	.96	.90
Textile mill products	1.44	1.38	1.36	1.36	1.34	1.32	1.23	1.18	1.16	1.04
Apparel and related products	1.47	1.37	1.37	1.35	1.32	1.31	1.24	1.21	1.22	1.16
Paper and allied products	1.92	1.81	1.73	1.67	1.59	1.51	1.40	1.33	1.28	1.15
Printing and publishing	2.33	2.26	2.18	2.11	2.02	1.91	1.83	1.77	1.65	1.48
Chemicals and allied products	2.09	1.97	1.89	1.81	1.69	1.62	1.50	1.42	1.34	1.22
Petroleum and related products	2.54	2.37	2.29	2.22	2.10	1.99	1.84	1.80	1.71	1.50
Rubber and plastic products	2.03	1.96	1.84	1.80	1.71	1.58	1.47	1.41	1.36	1.30
Leather and leather products	1.48	1.39	1.36	1.35	1.30	1.25	1.17	1.12	1.10	1.04
Wholesale and retail trade [3]	1.56	1.49	1.43	1.38	1.31	1.25	1.16	1.12	1.08	1.00
Wholesale trade	1.94	1.83	1.76	1.70	1.61	1.52	1.43	1.36	1.31	1.22
Retail trade [3]	1.40	1.34	1.29	1.25	1.18	1.13	1.05	1.02	.97	.90

[1] See footnote 1, table C–3.
[2] Preliminary unweighted average.
[3] Excludes eating and drinking places prior to 1964.

NOTE: For hours and earnings data, the effect of the inclusion of Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1959 was insignificant.
Data for recent years have been revised as a result of the adjustment to March 1964 benchmark levels.

Table C–6. Gross Average Weekly Earnings of Production or Nonsupervisory Workers [1] on Payrolls of Selected Industries: Annual Averages, 1947–65

Industry	1965 [2]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
Mining	$123.22	$117.74	$114.40	$110.43	$106.92	$105.44	$103.68	$96.08	$98.65
Contract construction	137.63	132.06	127.19	122.47	118.08	113.04	108.41	103.78	100.27
Manufacturing	107.27	102.97	99.63	96.56	92.34	89.72	88.26	82.71	81.59
Durable goods	117.18	112.19	108.50	104.70	100.35	97.44	96.05	89.27	88.26
Ordnance and accessories	130.73	122.31	120.42	116.60	113.03	108.39	106.14	102.41	95.58
Lumber and wood products	88.13	85.24	81.80	79.20	76.83	73.71	74.24	69.09	66.64
Furniture and fixtures	87.57	84.46	81.80	79.37	76.40	75.20	74.48	69.95	69.83
Stone, clay, and glass products	109.78	105.50	102.26	98.57	95.24	92.57	91.46	84.80	82.82
Primary metal industries	133.88	130.00	124.64	119.80	114.84	109.59	112.19	101.11	99.00
Fabricated metal products	116.20	111.34	108.05	104.81	100.85	98.42	96.12	89.78	88.34
Machinery	127.15	121.69	116.20	113.01	107.42	104.55	102.92	94.33	94.12
Electrical equipment	105.78	101.66	99.14	97.44	94.47	90.74	89.10	83.95	81.80
Transportation equipment	137.71	130.09	126.72	122.22	113.40	111.52	107.45	100.40	97.51
Instruments and related products	108.05	103.63	101.59	99.80	96.87	93.32	91.39	85.57	83.22
Miscellaneous manufacturing	84.99	82.37	80.39	78.61	75.84	74.28	73.42	70.17	69.48
Nondurable goods	94.64	90.91	87.91	85.93	82.92	80.36	78.61	74.11	72.52
Food and kindred products	99.87	97.17	94.30	91.84	88.75	86.09	82.82	79.15	75.48
Tobacco manufactures	79.76	76.05	73.92	71.41	69.42	64.94	64.12	62.17	58.75
Textile mill products	78.17	73.39	69.43	68.21	65.04	63.60	63.02	57.51	57.96
Apparel and related products	66.61	64.26	62.45	61.18	58.06	56.29	56.63	54.05	53.91
Paper and allied products	114.22	109.57	105.90	102.00	99.45	95.15	93.30	87.99	85.45
Printing and publishing	118.12	114.35	110.69	108.01	105.05	102.91	99.46	94.62	92.64
Chemicals and allied products	121.09	116.48	112.88	110.24	106.81	103.25	99.36	93.20	89.98
Petroleum and related products	138.42	133.66	131.77	126.88	124.31	188.78	117.42	111.66	108.53
Rubber and plastic products	109.62	104.90	100.78	100.04	96.15	92.57	93.75	85.85	85.67
Leather and leather products	71.82	68.98	66.00	64.67	62.83	60.52	60.10	57.25	56.85
Wholesale and retail trade [3]	76.53	74.28	77.59	75.08	72.56	70.77	69.17	66.47	64.29
Wholesale trade	106.08	102.56	99.47	96.22	93.56	90.72	88.51	84.02	81.41
Retail trade [3]	66.61	64.75	68.04	65.95	64.01	62.37	60.76	58.82	56.89

Industry	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Mining	$95.06	$89.54	$82.60	$83.03	$77.59	$74.11	$67.16	$62.33	$65.56	$59.94
Contract construction	96.38	90.90	88.91	86.41	82.86	76.96	69.68	67.56	65.27	58.87
Manufacturing	78.78	75.70	70.49	70.47	67.16	63.34	58.32	53.88	53.12	49.17
Durable goods	85.28	82.19	76.19	76.63	72.63	68.48	62.43	57.25	56.36	51.76
Ordnance and accessories	91.72	83.63	79.80	78.14	77.35	74.04	65.06	58.80	57.28	53.81
Lumber and wood products	65.57	63.99	61.39	60.76	59.15	55.41	51.27	48.02	47.60	43.93
Furniture and fixtures	68.78	67.07	62.80	62.99	60.86	57.13	53.59	49.36	48.87	45.53
Stone, clay, and glass products	80.56	77.00	71.69	70.18	66.17	63.76	59.10	54.31	53.19	48.95
Primary metal industries	96.76	92.51	81.48	84.46	77.52	75.30	67.36	60.94	61.18	55.38
Fabricated metal products	84.67	81.73	76.70	76.49	71.72	68.55	63.04	57.45	56.33	51.74
Machinery	93.06	87.36	81.40	82.68	79.55	76.13	67.08	60.31	60.38	55.78
Electrical equipment	79.56	74.89	71.24	70.99	67.98	64.27	59.35	55.77	54.54	50.25
Transportation equipment	94.81	93.48	86.30	85.28	81.51	75.81	71.29	65.10	61.74	57.01
Instruments and related products	80.77	76.48	72.00	72.63	70.98	67.10	59.80	54.39	52.58	48.36
Miscellaneous manufacturing	67.60	64.88	61.78	61.56	59.02	55.08	52.02	48.23	48.07	44.79
Nondurable goods	70.09	66.63	63.18	62.57	59.95	56.88	43.48	50.38	49.50	46.03
Food and kindred products	72.69	68.89	65.67	63.50	60.34	56.84	52.88	50.53	48.89	45.92
Tobacco manufactures	56.26	51.86	48.88	47.63	45.31	43.99	41.00	37.26	36.61	35.20
Textile mill products	57.17	55.34	52.09	53.18	52.39	51.22	48.63	44.41	45.28	40.99
Apparel and related products	52.92	49.73	48.36	48.74	47.92	46.64	44.64	42.80	43.68	41.80
Paper and allied products	82.18	78.01	73.18	71.81	68.05	65.08	60.53	55.42	54.74	49.69
Printing and publishing	90.64	87.91	83.93	82.29	78.58	74.30	71.26	68.64	65.17	59.34
Chemicals and allied products	85.90	80.97	77.11	74.21	69.12	66.91	61.68	57.67	55.33	50.31
Petroleum and related products	104.14	96.93	93.20	90.35	85.05	81.19	75.11	72.46	69.30	60.98
Rubber and plastic products	82.01	81.93	73.23	72.72	69.77	64.31	60.35	54.14	53.35	51.87
Leather and leather products	55.65	52.68	50.18	50.90	49.92	46.13	43.99	41.97	41.11	40.07
Wholesale and retail trade [3]	61.78	59.45	57.20	55.20	53.06	51.13	47.77	45.96	43.97	40.96
Wholesale trade	78.57	74.48	71.28	69.02	65.53	62.02	58.08	55.49	53.63	50.14
Retail trade [3]	54.74	53.06	51.21	49.75	47.79	46.22	43.16	41.62	39.75	36.94

[1] See footnote 1, table C–3.
[2] Preliminary unweighted average.
[3] Excludes eating and drinking places prior to 1964.

Note: For hours and earnings data, the effect of the inclusion of Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1959 was insignificant.
Data for recent years have been revised as a result of the adjustment to March 1964 benchmark levels.

Table C–7. Gross Average Weekly Hours of Production or Nonsupervisory Workers [1] on Payrolls of Selected Industries: Annual Averages, 1947–65

Industry	1965 [2]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
Mining	42.2	41.9	41.6	40.9	40.5	40.4	40.5	38.9	40.1
Contract construction	37.4	37.2	37.3	37.0	36.9	36.7	37.0	36.8	37.0
Manufacturing	41.1	40.7	40.5	40.4	39.8	39.7	40.3	39.2	39.8
Durable goods	42.0	41.4	41.1	40.9	40.3	40.1	40.7	39.5	40.3
Ordnance and accessories	41.9	40.5	41.1	41.2	41.1	40.9	41.3	40.8	40.5
Lumber and wood products	40.8	40.4	40.1	39.8	39.4	39.0	39.7	38.6	38.3
Furniture and fixtures	41.5	41.2	40.9	40.7	40.0	40.0	40.7	39.3	39.9
Stone, clay, and glass products	41.9	41.7	41.4	40.9	40.7	40.6	41.2	40.0	40.4
Primary metal industries	42.1	41.8	41.0	40.2	39.6	39.0	40.5	38.3	39.6
Fabricated metal products	42.1	41.7	41.4	41.1	40.5	40.5	40.9	39.9	40.9
Machinery	43.1	42.4	41.8	41.7	41.0	41.0	41.5	39.8	41.1
Electrical equipment	41.0	40.5	40.3	40.6	40.2	39.8	40.5	39.6	40.1
Transportation equipment	42.9	42.1	42.1	42.0	40.5	40.7	40.7	40.0	40.8
Instruments and related products	41.4	40.8	40.8	40.9	40.7	40.4	40.8	39.8	40.4
Miscellaneous manufacturing	39.9	39.6	39.6	39.7	39.5	39.3	39.9	39.2	39.7
Nondurable goods	40.1	39.7	39.6	39.6	39.3	39.2	39.7	38.8	39.2
Food and kindred products	41.1	41.0	41.0	41.0	40.9	40.8	41.0	40.8	40.8
Tobacco manufactures	37.8	38.5	38.7	38.6	39.0	38.2	39.1	39.1	38.4
Textile mill products	41.8	41.0	40.6	40.6	39.9	39.5	40.4	38.6	38.9
Apparel and related products	36.4	35.9	36.1	36.2	35.4	35.4	36.3	35.1	35.7
Paper and allied products	43.1	42.8	42.7	42.5	42.5	42.1	42.8	41.9	42.3
Printing and publishing	38.6	38.5	38.3	38.3	38.2	38.4	38.4	38.0	38.6
Chemicals and allied products	41.9	41.6	41.5	41.0	41.4	41.3	41.4	40.7	40.9
Petroleum and related products	42.2	41.9	41.7	41.6	41.3	41.1	41.2	40.9	40.8
Rubber and plastic products	42.0	41.3	40.8	41.0	40.4	39.9	41.3	39.2	40.6
Leather and leather products	38.2	37.9	37.5	37.6	37.4	36.9	37.8	36.7	37.4
Wholesale and retail trade [3]	37.7	37.9	38.6	38.7	38.8	39.1	39.3	39.1	39.2
Wholesale trade	40.8	40.7	40.6	40.6	40.5	40.5	40.6	40.2	40.3
Retail trade [3]	36.6	37.0	37.8	37.9	38.1	38.5	38.7	38.7	38.7

Industry	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Mining	40.8	40.7	38.6	38.8	38.6	38.4	37.9	36.3	39.4	40.8
Contract construction	37.5	37.1	37.2	37.9	38.9	38.1	37.4	37.7	38.1	38.2
Manufacturing	40.4	40.7	39.6	40.5	40.7	40.6	40.5	39.1	40.0	40.4
Durable goods	41.0	41.3	40.1	41.2	41.5	41.5	41.1	39.4	40.4	40.5
Ordnance and accessories	41.5	40.4	39.9	40.7	42.5	43.3	41.6	39.7	41.3	41.2
Lumber and wood products	38.8	39.5	39.1	39.2	39.7	39.3	39.5	39.2	40.0	40.3
Furniture and fixtures	40.7	41.4	40.0	40.9	41.4	41.1	41.8	40.0	41.0	41.5
Stone, clay, and glass products	41.1	41.4	40.5	40.8	41.1	41.4	41.1	39.7	40.7	41.0
Primary metal industries	41.0	41.3	38.8	41.0	40.8	41.6	40.9	38.4	40.2	39.9
Fabricated metal products	41.3	41.7	40.8	41.8	41.7	41.8	41.5	39.7	40.7	40.9
Machinery	42.3	42.0	40.7	42.4	43.0	43.5	41.9	39.6	41.3	41.5
Electrical equipment	40.8	40.7	39.8	40.8	41.2	41.2	41.1	39.5	40.1	40.3
Transportation equipment	41.4	42.3	40.9	41.6	41.8	41.2	41.4	39.6	39.4	39.7
Instruments and related products	41.0	40.9	40.0	41.5	42.0	42.2	41.3	39.7	40.2	40.4
Miscellaneous manufacturing	40.0	40.3	39.6	40.5	40.7	40.5	40.8	39.6	40.6	40.5
Nondurable goods	39.6	39.9	39.0	39.6	39.7	39.5	39.7	38.9	39.6	40.2
Food and kindred products	41.3	41.5	41.3	41.5	41.9	42.1	41.9	41.9	42.4	43.2
Tobacco manufactures	38.8	38.7	37.6	38.1	38.4	38.5	38.1	37.3	38.3	38.9
Textile mill products	39.7	40.1	38.3	39.1	39.1	38.8	39.6	37.6	39.2	39.6
Apparel and related products	36.0	36.3	35.3	36.1	36.3	35.6	36.0	35.4	35.8	36.0
Paper and allied products	42.8	43.1	42.3	43.0	42.8	43.1	43.3	41.7	42.8	43.1
Printing and publishing	38.9	38.9	38.5	39.0	38.9	38.9	38.9	38.8	39.4	40.2
Chemicals and allied products	41.1	41.1	40.8	41.0	40.9	41.3	41.2	40.7	41.2	41.2
Petroleum and related products	41.0	40.9	40.7	40.7	40.5	40.8	40.8	40.3	40.6	40.6
Rubber and plastic products	40.4	41.8	39.8	40.4	40.8	40.7	41.0	38.4	39.2	39.9
Leather and leather products	37.6	37.9	36.9	37.7	38.4	36.9	37.6	36.6	37.2	38.6
Wholesale and retail trade [3]	39.6	39.9	40.0	40.0	40.5	40.9	41.0	41.0	40.9	41.0
Wholesale trade	40.5	40.7	40.5	40.6	40.7	40.8	40.7	40.8	41.0	41.1
Retail trade [3]	39.1	39.6	39.7	39.8	40.5	40.9	41.1	41.0	40.9	41.0

[1] See footnote 1, table C–3.
[2] Preliminary unweighted average.
[3] Excludes eating and drinking places prior to 1964.

NOTE: For hours and earnings data, the effect of the inclusion of Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1959 was insignificant.
Data for recent years have been revised as a result of the adjustment to March 1964 benchmark levels.

Table C–8. Selected Payroll Series on Hours, Earnings, and Labor Turnover: Annual Averages, 1947–65

Year	Average weekly overtime hours			Average hourly earnings excluding overtime [1]			Aggregate weekly man-hours index (1957–59=100)			Aggregate weekly payroll index (1957–59=100)		
	Manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	Manufacturing	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	Mining	Contract construction	Manufacturing	Mining	Contract construction	Manufacturing
1947	[2]	[2]	[2]	$1.18	$1.24	$1.11	141.1	73.2	104.7	83.1	40.0	60.3
1948	[2]	[2]	[2]	1.29	1.35	1.21	141.8	79.9	103.2	94.6	48.5	64.8
1949	[2]	[2]	[2]	1.34	1.42	1.26	120.8	78.8	92.1	83.2	50.0	60.0
1950	[2]	[2]	[2]	1.39	1.46	1.31	122.8	84.2	101.2	87.3	55.5	68.9
1951	[2]	[2]	[2]	1.51	1.59	1.40	127.9	95.7	108.5	99.0	68.6	80.2
1952	[2]	[2]	[2]	1.59	1.68	1.46	122.7	98.3	108.5	98.8	74.3	84.5
1953	[2]	[2]	[2]	1.68	1.79	1.53	118.0	95.0	113.7	101.3	76.9	93.6
1954	[2]	[2]	[2]	1.73	1.84	1.58	105.1	92.4	101.4	90.1	78.1	85.4
1955	[2]	[2]	[2]	1.79	1.91	1.62	109.9	98.5	108.0	97.0	85.4	94.8
1956	2.8	3.0	2.4	1.89	2.01	1.72	113.5	106.5	108.4	106.2	96.9	100.2
1957	2.3	2.4	2.2	1.99	2.12	1.80	110.8	102.3	104.8	109.1	98.3	101.4
1958	2.0	1.9	2.2	2.05	2.21	1.86	94.4	95.4	93.8	93.7	95.4	93.5
1959	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.12	2.28	1.92	94.8	102.3	101.3	97.2	106.2	105.1
1960	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.20	2.36	1.99	91.5	98.3	99.7	95.6	107.1	106.7
1961	2.4	2.3	2.5	2.25	2.42	2.05	85.6	96.1	96.1	90.6	108.8	105.4
1962	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.31	2.48	2.09	83.3	99.1	100.6	90.2	116.1	113.8
1963	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.37	2.54	2.15	82.3	102.5	101.4	90.7	123.8	117.9
1964	3.1	3.3	2.9	2.44	2.60	2.21	82.6	105.4	103.8	93.0	132.5	124.2
1965 [3]	3.6	3.9	3.1	2.50	2.67	2.26	82.6	111.3	109.9	96.6	145.3	135.9

Year	Spendable average weekly earnings, worker with three dependents								Labor turnover rates per 100 employees, manufacturing				
	In current dollars				In 1957–59 dollars				Accessions		Separations		
	Mining	Contract construction	Manufacturing	Wholesale and retail trade [4]	Mining	Contract construction	Manufacturing	Wholesale and retail trade [4]	Total	New hires	Total	Quits	Layoffs
1947	$56.42	$55.53	$47.58	$40.55	$72.52	$71.38	$61.16	$52.12	6.2	[2]	5.7	4.1	1.1
1948	62.85	62.60	52.31	43.53	75.00	74.70	62.42	51.95	5.4	[2]	5.4	3.4	1.6
1949	60.10	64.55	52.95	45.50	72.41	77.77	63.80	54.82	4.3	[2]	5.0	1.9	2.9
1950	63.81	65.94	56.36	47.05	76.15	78.69	67.26	56.15	5.3	[2]	4.1	2.3	1.3
1951	68.88	71.21	60.18	50.36	76.11	78.69	66.50	55.65	5.3	4.1	5.3	2.9	1.4
1952	71.30	75.51	62.98	51.91	77.08	81.63	68.09	56.12	5.4	4.1	4.9	2.8	1.4
1953	75.65	78.36	65.60	53.59	81.17	84.08	70.39	57.50	4.8	3.6	5.1	2.8	1.6
1954	75.58	80.76	65.65	54.99	80.75	86.28	70.14	58.75	3.6	1.9	4.1	1.4	2.3
1955	81.04	82.16	69.79	56.79	86.86	88.06	74.80	60.87	4.5	3.0	3.9	1.9	1.5
1956	85.57	86.65	72.25	58.65	90.36	91.50	76.29	61.93	4.2	2.8	4.2	1.9	1.7
1957	88.30	89.63	74.31	60.50	90.10	91.46	75.83	61.73	3.6	2.2	4.2	1.6	2.1
1958	86.20	92.51	75.23	62.24	85.60	91.87	74.71	61.81	3.6	1.7	4.1	1.1	2.6
1959	91.94	95.82	79.40	64.22	90.58	94.40	78.23	63.27	[5] 4.2	2.6	[5] 4.1	1.5	2.0
1960	92.92	99.15	80.11	65.14	90.13	96.17	77.70	63.18	3.8	2.2	4.3	1.3	2.4
1961	94.13	103.29	82.18	66.55	90.34	99.13	78.87	63.87	4.1	2.2	4.0	1.2	2.2
1962	96.90	106.78	85.53	68.45	91.94	101.31	81.15	64.94	4.1	2.5	4.1	1.4	2.0
1963	99.69	110.18	87.58	70.04	93.43	103.26	82.08	65.64	3.9	2.4	3.9	1.4	1.8
1964	104.40	116.40	92.18	68.93	96.58	107.68	85.27	63.77	4.0	2.6	3.9	1.5	1.7
1965 [3]	110.02	122.21	96.56	71.12	100.29	111.40	87.86	64.83	4.3	3.1	4.0	1.9	1.4

[1] Prior to the availability of weekly overtime hours beginning 1956, these data were derived by applying adjustment factors to gross average hourly earnings. (See the *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1950, pp. 537–540.)

[2] Not available.

[3] Preliminary unweighted average.

[4] Excludes eating and drinking places prior to 1964.

[5] Transfers between establishments of the same firm are included in total accessions and total separations beginning 1959, therefore rates for these items are not strictly comparable with prior data. Transfers comprise part of other accessions and other separations, the rates for which are not shown separately.

NOTE: For hours and earnings series in mining and manufacturing, data refer to production and related workers; for contract construction, to construction workers; for wholesale and retail trade, to nonsupervisory workers.

For hours, earnings, and labor turnover data, the effect of the inclusion of Alaska and Hawaii beginning 1959 was insignificant.

Data for recent years have been revised as a result of the adjustment to March 1964 benchmark levels.

Table D–1. Employees on Payrolls of Nonagricultural Establishments, by Region and State: Annual Averages, 1947–65

[Thousands]

Region and State	1965 [1]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
New England	3,949	3,859	3,817	3,799	3,727	3,707	3,651	3,534	3,648	3,647	3,549	3,492	3,586	3,514	3,506	3,345	3,234	3,373	3,333
Maine	287	283	279	279	277	278	274	266	274	279	275	270	276	276	272	254	252	265	263
New Hampshire	217	209	205	205	199	198	193	185	189	187	184	177	178	176	175	168	164	173	169
Vermont	119	112	110	109	106	107	107	103	106	106	102	102	104	100	100	97	95	99	99
Massachusetts	2,004	1,963	1,956	1,958	1,930	1,917	1,891	1,828	1,873	1,866	1,818	1,792	1,845	1,810	1,823	1,761	1,712	1,760	1,731
Rhode Island	306	302	298	298	292	292	287	277	285	296	295	291	304	304	308	299	281	299	298
Connecticut	1,016	990	969	950	924	917	900	876	922	913	875	860	880	848	829	766	730	776	774
Middle Atlantic	12,515	12,299	12,101	12,051	11,829	11,914	11,777	11,601	11,992	11,852	11,530	11,342	11,696	11,450	11,361	10,876	10,623	10,979	10,813
New York	6,447	6,366	6,273	6,260	6,157	6,182	6,128	6,027	6,179	6,093	5,917	5,828	5,936	5,828	5,755	5,576	5,473	5,596	5,518
New Jersey	2,220	2,160	2,128	2,095	2,034	2,018	1,971	1,911	1,968	1,934	1,865	1,821	1,850	1,804	1,768	1,657	1,596	1,657	1,623
Pennsylvania	3,848	3,773	3,701	3,699	3,640	3,717	3,679	3,661	3,843	3,826	3,748	3,692	3,910	3,819	3,838	3,643	3,555	3,725	3,672
East North Central	12,637	12,184	11,873	11,656	11,361	11,639	[2] 11,469	[3] 11,067	11,754	11,750	11,503	11,055	11,569	11,071	10,940	10,368	9,936	10,327	10,067
Ohio	3,314	3,213	3,144	3,099	3,044	3,147	3,113	3,007	3,230	3,220	3,129	3,028	3,150	3,006	2,953	2,760	2,655	2,786	2,708
Indiana	1,619	1,546	1,499	1,461	1,408	1,431	[2] 1,397	1,333	1,408	1,406	1,377	1,320	1,422	1,360	1,353	1,272	1,188	1,227	1,194
Illinois	3,787	3,684	3,599	3,557	3,487	3,522	3,500	3,412	3,558	3,538	3,410	3,317	3,444	3,350	3,297	3,160	3,088	3,206	3,165
Michigan	2,602	2,473	2,397	2,336	2,246	2,351	2,297	[3] 2,204	2,376	2,440	2,479	2,321	2,456	2,275	2,266	2,154	2,019	2,094	2,014
Wisconsin	1,315	1,269	1,234	1,207	1,180	1,192	1,166	1,115	1,152	1,147	1,108	1,070	1,097	1,080	1,071	1,022	987	1,015	986
West North Central	4,563	4,437	4,342	4,275	4,190	4,197	4,135	4,013	4,058	4,032	3,943	3,880	3,946	3,879	3,798	3,608	3,493	3,525	3,414
Minnesota	1,062	1,027	1,003	986	958	960	933	909	919	909	882	863	875	844	836	803	775	793	766
Iowa	749	720	701	686	680	681	675	647	654	649	632	619	632	630	631	610	593	596	577
Missouri	1,447	1,409	1,378	1,352	1,328	1,346	1,333	1,298	1,322	1,314	1,286	1,267	1,308	1,289	1,257	1,185	1,143	1,162	1,136
North Dakota	145	142	136	131	126	126	128	123	121	120	116	117	115	113	109	109	106	103	97
South Dakota	151	151	152	152	147	142	138	133	132	133	128	125	125	122	120	119	116	115	110
Nebraska	410	402	399	393	387	381	369	357	356	357	355	348	349	344	334	319	312	313	301
Kansas	599	586	573	572	561	559	559	546	554	550	544	541	544	538	511	464	448	443	427
South Atlantic	8,423	8,115	7,818	7,558	7,277	7,213	7,052	6,784	6,828	6,690	6,392	6,122	6,233	6,153	5,964	5,564	5,325	5,420	5,269
Delaware	176	169	163	156	152	154	151	149	154	157	144	135	139	134	129	121	113	115	111
Maryland	1,052	1,013	979	949	911	896	876	855	882	870	835	803	815	793	769	716	686	697	673
District of Columbia	617	597	585	567	548	536	526	513	514	509	503	499	517	537	534	498	489	483	477
Virginia	1,209	1,163	1,124	1,082	1,035	1,018	1,001	967	972	956	912	880	903	898	869	805	775	786	772
West Virginia	466	458	450	448	448	460	465	470	509	502	481	475	513	526	538	524	523	551	520
North Carolina	1,411	1,352	1,299	1,259	1,209	1,196	1,164	1,109	1,101	1,099	1,059	1,012	1,024	1,007	987	928	868	895	880
South Carolina	682	652	631	610	587	583	567	546	545	543	533	520	544	544	506	461	443	456	436
Georgia	1,227	1,181	1,140	1,093	1,051	1,051	1,030	989	997	994	960	915	930	905	872	807	770	779	759
Florida	1,583	1,530	1,447	1,388	1,334	1,321	1,273	1,186	1,153	1,060	966	883	849	809	760	704	657	658	641
East South Central	3,204	3,070	2,961	2,858	2,764	2,759	2,716	2,634	2,665	2,635	2,545	2,458	2,521	2,467	2,401	2,247	2,160	2,242	2,148
Kentucky	767	726	703	674	648	654	647	635	657	649	620	599	631	620	599	557	537	557	530
Tennessee	1,094	1,045	1,003	969	934	926	907	875	887	887	868	842	853	827	806	759	722	754	717
Alabama	865	839	813	792	775	776	764	742	755	735	703	678	693	681	663	620	605	629	610
Mississippi	479	460	444	426	409	404	397	381	367	364	354	340	344	340	334	312	297	303	291
West South Central	4,868	4,702	4,544	4,418	4,287	4,270	4,235	4,125	4,155	4,064	3,889	3,751	3,791	3,736	3,596	3,333	3,218	3,224	3,059
Arkansas	445	429	415	397	376	367	359	344	337	333	321	311	320	323	319	298	288	294	286
Louisiana	904	858	817	795	781	790	789	783	803	772	726	709	711	684	670	636	623	618	592
Oklahoma	639	625	612	602	587	582	573	557	565	563	551	531	535	527	504	477	466	463	437
Texas	2,881	2,790	2,700	2,625	2,544	2,532	2,513	2,442	2,450	2,396	2,291	2,200	2,225	2,202	2,104	1,921	1,841	1,850	1,743
Mountain	2,154	2,111	2,065	2,004	1,927	1,873	1,797	1,711	1,685	1,624	1,538	1,462	1,475	1,442	1,375	1,276	1,221	1,220	1,170
Montana	180	176	175	172	167	167	165	162	165	169	162	157	157	155	151	149	147	145	138
Idaho	174	169	165	165	159	155	155	151	148	145	139	133	136	138	139	132	126	125	123
Wyoming	97	98	97	96	97	97	93	88	88	88	86	86	88	86	83	80	79	80	73
Colorado	584	575	564	551	537	515	493	471	471	452	433	412	417	413	393	358	338	345	335
New Mexico	261	256	249	243	236	236	234	221	210	198	183	175	179	171	161	152	141	134	123
Arizona	400	389	377	365	347	334	309	287	273	251	226	209	208	198	181	162	154	155	146
Utah	300	294	295	287	274	265	254	242	242	236	225	213	219	216	209	190	184	184	179
Nevada	155	149	143	127	110	103	96	88	88	86	85	76	72	66	59	54	51	53	54
Pacific	7,537	7,286	7,066	6,857	6,575	[4] 6,463	[5] 6,263	5,763	5,808	5,629	5,326	5,064	5,098	4,952	4,715	4,331	4,178	4,261	4,170
Washington	888	855	851	857	819	813	813	790	803	785	768	741	749	746	735	684	671	686	671
Oregon	605	573	549	528	509	509	498	475	480	492	475	456	469	468	462	438	419	433	420
California	5,757	5,585	5,404	5,218	4,996	4,896	4,775	4,499	4,525	4,352	4,083	3,866	3,881	3,738	3,518	3,209	3,088	3,163	3,080
Alaska	70	65	62	59	57	57	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Hawaii	217	208	200	195	194	189	177	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.
[2] Beginning 1959, data are not strictly comparable with earlier years because of a break in the series.
[3] Beginning 1958, data are not strictly comparable with earlier years because of conversion to the 1957 Standard Industrial Classification.
[4] Includes Alaska beginning 1960.
[5] Includes Hawaii beginning 1959.

NOTE: Data for several States have been revised because of recent benchmark adjustments.

SOURCE: State agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D-2. Employees on Payrolls of Manufacturing Establishments, by Region and State: Annual Averages, 1947–65

[Thousands]

Region and State	1965 [1]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
New England	1,443	1,408	1,425	1,453	1,428	1,452	1,450	1,382	1,488	1,522	1,484	1,472	1,600	1,554	1,564	1,469	1,390	1,530	1,543
Maine	106	104	103	104	103	104	103	100	107	111	108	107	115	116	116	109	106	114	115
New Hampshire	89	86	86	89	86	87	87	81	84	84	83	80	83	82	83	79	75	83	84
Vermont	38	35	35	36	34	35	36	33	37	39	37	38	41	39	40	37	35	39	41
Massachusetts	660	647	664	688	685	698	698	666	706	719	701	692	752	733	747	716	685	733	731
Rhode Island	116	115	116	119	117	120	120	113	121	129	132	130	146	146	151	148	135	154	155
Connecticut	434	421	421	418	404	407	407	389	433	439	423	425	462	437	427	380	354	408	419
Middle Atlantic	4,128	4,032	4,010	4,055	3,997	4,132	4,106	4,044	4,396	4,412	4,328	4,297	4,623	4,436	4,416	4,153	3,904	4,329	4,331
New York	1,826	1,798	1,804	1,838	1,823	1,879	1,893	1,867	2,024	2,042	2,007	2,006	2,119	2,045	2,007	1,916	1,853	1,977	1,994
New Jersey	820	803	809	813	791	809	801	775	835	835	811	802	856	833	821	756	722	786	783
Pennsylvania	1,482	1,431	1,397	1,399	1,378	1,440	1,408	1,397	1,536	1,535	1,510	1,489	1,648	1,558	1,588	1,481	1,419	1,567	1,554
East North Central	4,817	4,593	4,488	4,417	4,232	4,495	4,485	[2] 4,236	4,769	4,882	4,894	4,632	5,168	4,822	4,805	4,493	4,194	4,552	4,557
Ohio	1,307	1,253	1,233	1,216	1,181	1,263	1,263	1,197	1,369	1,391	1,368	1,312	1,444	1,355	1,337	1,218	1,140	1,260	1,267
Indiana	669	631	615	602	568	594	584	548	617	623	629	590	681	626	624	580	520	561	556
Illinois	1,283	1,234	1,204	1,199	1,165	1,211	1,226	1,172	1,294	1,315	1,275	1,228	1,340	1,271	1,262	1,198	1,142	1,230	1,253
Michigan	1,072	1,007	976	944	879	968	952	[2] 887	1,026	1,081	1,164	1,061	1,222	1,097	1,112	1,063	981	1,058	1,042
Wisconsin	486	468	461	456	439	460	460	432	464	471	458	442	480	474	470	435	412	444	439
West North Central	1,062	1,040	1,020	1,008	978	1,001	998	957	1,008	1,002	985	984	1,052	1,008	959	874	841	871	864
Minnesota	255	247	243	240	229	230	225	219	230	226	216	216	231	220	214	201	193	204	205
Iowa	190	183	179	174	171	177	178	165	170	173	171	165	176	174	171	154	150	155	152
Missouri	407	401	394	387	376	393	391	375	397	395	389	388	421	395	378	354	340	356	355
North Dakota	8	8	8	7	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	6	6	6
South Dakota	13	13	15	14	14	13	13	13	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
Nebraska	69	68	67	68	67	67	64	60	61	61	62	61	64	62	57	52	51	52	52
Kansas	121	121	116	118	115	116	120	120	131	127	129	136	141	139	120	95	89	87	84
South Atlantic	2,318	2,227	2,164	2,111	2,027	2,040	2,004	1,911	1,966	1,956	1,904	1,813	1,879	1,818	1,794	1,682	1,589	1,695	1,662
Delaware	66	61	59	56	55	59	58	58	62	61	59	57	61	59	56	51	48	50	47
Maryland	264	257	260	258	256	259	257	258	278	277	266	259	275	263	259	233	224	240	235
District of Columbia	21	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	19	19	19	20	20	20	19	19	19	19
Virginia	321	309	298	292	276	275	270	258	265	263	255	247	259	251	245	230	222	238	237
West Virginia	127	125	124	123	120	125	127	122	133	133	131	127	138	136	140	131	129	142	139
North Carolina	586	562	542	531	509	509	497	470	470	471	460	437	449	435	433	418	387	415	412
South Carolina	293	278	270	260	247	245	238	227	232	234	231	220	227	222	220	210	201	211	203
Georgia	394	377	363	350	333	341	339	320	331	339	335	312	321	311	307	287	265	282	276
Florida	246	238	229	222	211	207	199	180	175	160	147	135	129	121	114	102	95	98	96
East South Central	1,008	952	909	874	828	844	835	797	828	828	806	755	789	750	740	692	654	719	710
Kentucky	204	193	183	175	166	172	171	161	172	175	168	154	162	151	153	140	132	141	138
Tennessee	380	361	345	332	314	316	308	290	302	305	297	280	294	278	268	250	238	261	256
Alabama	273	258	247	240	231	237	238	233	246	242	236	226	235	226	225	216	206	227	224
Mississippi	151	140	134	128	119	120	119	113	107	107	105	96	99	95	94	86	77	90	92
West South Central	948	915	874	847	814	820	818	800	830	825	790	761	784	754	720	650	622	648	625
Arkansas	131	126	119	113	105	102	99	90	88	90	86	81	83	82	83	76	70	77	76
Louisiana	160	154	146	139	136	142	143	144	153	155	155	156	166	155	151	145	144	157	154
Oklahoma	101	97	91	90	87	87	87	85	90	93	89	83	85	80	73	66	64	67	62
Texas	556	538	518	504	487	490	489	481	499	487	461	442	450	437	413	364	344	347	331
Mountain	287	290	289	285	274	265	249	231	232	224	209	195	200	196	188	168	157	164	160
Montana	22	22	22	22	20	20	20	20	20	21	20	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
Idaho	32	32	30	31	30	29	29	26	26	28	26	24	24	24	25	22	21	22	21
Wyoming	7	8	7	7	8	8	8	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	6	6	7	7
Colorado	88	91	93	93	92	88	81	75	76	72	69	68	71	70	69	62	57	60	60
New Mexico	17	18	17	17	16	17	17	16	15	14	12	11	11	11	11	10	9	9	8
Arizona	64	60	58	55	51	49	46	41	41	37	33	28	29	29	24	17	15	16	15
Utah	50	52	55	54	50	47	42	39	39	37	35	33	34	32	32	29	29	28	27
Nevada	7	7	7	6	6	5	5	5	6	6	6	5	5	4	4	4	3	4	4
Pacific	1,820	1,789	1,794	1,789	1,706	[3] 1,710	[4] 1,710	1,573	1,648	1,579	1,475	1,382	1,408	1,339	1,240	1,076	1,003	1,053	1,035
Washington	225	219	224	233	218	217	226	219	226	213	208	195	201	197	197	179	174	179	178
Oregon	157	152	145	143	139	144	147	137	139	148	146	139	146	148	150	138	128	140	135
California	1,407	1,389	1,394	1,383	1,318	1,317	1,313	1,217	1,284	1,218	1,121	1,049	1,061	995	893	760	702	734	722
Alaska	6	6	6	6	5	6													
Hawaii	25	25	25	25	26	26	25												

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.
[2] Beginning 1958, data are not strictly comparable with earlier years because of conversion to the 1957 Standard Industrial Classification.
[3] Includes Alaska beginning 1960.
[4] Includes Hawaii beginning 1959.

NOTE: Data for several States have been revised because of recent benchmark adjustments.
SOURCE: State agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–3. Total Unemployment and Total Unemployment Rates, by State: Annual Averages, 1957–65

State	Total unemployment (thousands)									Total unemployment as percent of total work force								
	1965 [1]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957	1965 [1]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
Alabama	41.7	47.8	59.0	66.4	84.3	72.8	73.3	94.4	(2)	3.5	4.0	5.0	5.7	7.2	6.3	6.4	8.1	(2)
Alaska	6.0	5.8	6.4	6.4	7.0	5.6	6.6	7.0	5.4	7.0	7.1	8.2	8.5	9.5	7.7	9.5	10.3	8.0
Arizona	27.7	26.1	25.0	24.7	27.6	21.5	20.1	23.5	15.3	5.3	5.1	5.0	5.1	5.8	4.7	4.7	5.7	3.9
Arkansas	27.2	29.7	32.7	36.7	43.7	36.7	35.3	44.3	32.4	4.2	4.6	5.1	5.8	7.1	6.1	5.9	7.5	5.7
California	430.0	422.0	411.0	389.0	446.0	367.0	292.0	377.0	243.0	5.9	6.0	6.0	5.8	6.9	5.8	4.8	6.4	4.2
Colorado	23.6	24.3	31.9	29.6	30.1	24.9	21.9	26.1	17.5	3.1	3.3	4.3	4.0	4.2	3.6	3.3	4.0	2.7
Connecticut	46.8	54.3	55.5	56.4	74.3	60.4	70.0	91.1	46.1	4.0	4.7	4.9	5.0	6.7	5.6	6.4	8.4	4.2
Delaware	5.9	7.6	7.6	8.9	11.0	8.6	9.6	11.3	(2)	2.7	3.6	3.7	4.5	5.6	4.4	4.9	5.9	(2)
District of Columbia [3]	22.9	23.3	24.1	22.1	23.8	21.5	20.6	24.5	19.2	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.7	3.2	2.5
Florida	71.1	84.0	104.7	112.0	126.0	94.5	83.6	97.2	57.9	3.3	4.0	5.1	5.7	6.6	5.2	4.5	5.5	3.5
Georgia	47.9	56.1	63.0	69.8	92.6	76.9	(2)	(2)	(2)	3.0	3.6	4.2	4.7	6.3	5.3	(2)	(2)	(2)
Hawaii	9.3	10.1	12.0	11.6	10.2	7.6	6.9	7.6	7.7	3.5	3.9	4.8	4.7	4.0	3.1	3.1	3.6	3.7
Idaho	11.0	13.6	14.6	14.8	17.1	14.1	13.0	15.4	11.8	4.1	5.1	5.5	5.5	6.4	5.4	5.0	5.9	4.6
Illinois	142.8	169.4	195.7	209.2	261.3	202.4	209.8	282.3	160.5	3.0	3.8	4.4	4.7	5.9	4.6	4.8	6.5	3.7
Indiana	56.0	71.2	75.9	90.4	121.5	96.6	90.7	145.4	81.9	2.9	3.8	4.1	4.9	6.7	5.3	5.1	8.2	4.6
Iowa	23.0	26.5	30.1	34.2	41.6	34.5	28.9	35.2	30.0	2.0	2.4	2.7	3.1	3.7	3.1	2.6	3.2	2.8
Kansas	25.1	27.3	30.5	29.6	38.6	34.7	28.5	36.1	25.6	3.1	3.4	3.8	3.7	4.8	4.3	3.6	4.4	3.2
Kentucky	38.3	50.2	54.8	62.8	85.4	71.6	(2)	(2)	(2)	3.5	4.6	5.0	6.0	8.0	7.1	(2)	(2)	(2)
Louisiana	51.6	55.5	62.4	75.1	85.8	75.2	68.5	(2)	(2)	4.1	4.6	5.3	6.4	7.3	6.5	6.0	(2)	(2)
Maine	15.9	20.3	22.9	23.4	29.6	26.7	24.5	31.1	19.5	4.4	5.6	6.3	6.4	8.0	7.2	6.7	8.5	5.3
Maryland	42.5	48.7	54.5	61.5	69.8	62.9	64.3	69.5	39.0	3.4	4.0	4.6	5.3	6.1	5.6	5.8	6.4	3.6
Massachusetts	111.4	129.5	134.1	125.5	137.8	123.0	115.8	149.2	92.1	4.7	5.6	5.8	5.4	5.9	5.4	5.4	7.0	4.4
Michigan	108.6	132.0	152.8	192.4	298.7	198.6	250.5	418.0	201.8	3.5	4.4	5.2	6.6	10.2	6.8	8.5	13.8	6.6
Minnesota	55.1	65.0	67.3	68.1	80.5	67.2	67.4	90.4	58.1	3.6	4.3	4.5	4.6	5.5	4.6	4.6	6.2	4.1
Mississippi	26.3	32.5	36.9	38.9	49.4	43.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	3.4	4.3	4.9	5.1	6.6	5.4	(2)	(2)	(2)
Missouri	68.1	76.8	88.8	96.7	113.4	89.4	78.1	103.7	75.4	3.6	4.1	4.7	5.2	6.0	4.7	4.2	5.6	4.1
Montana	10.0	11.6	12.1	12.8	17.5	16.8	14.9	19.3	13.0	3.9	4.6	4.8	5.1	6.9	6.6	5.9	7.6	5.2
Nebraska	17.3	18.3	19.4	20.2	22.3	18.6	17.7	20.5	19.6	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.5	2.9	2.8	3.3	3.2
Nevada	10.8	9.7	8.2	7.4	8.6	7.1	6.7	8.5	5.5	5.8	5.7	5.0	5.1	6.6	5.8	5.8	7.8	5.2
New Hampshire	7.4	9.6	10.8	9.2	12.2	10.5	10.0	14.0	9.7	2.8	3.7	4.2	3.6	4.8	4.1	4.0	5.7	4.0
New Jersey	137.7	160.9	169.7	163.3	186.3	169.1	175.5	222.5	156.8	5.1	6.1	6.4	6.3	7.3	6.7	7.0	9.0	6.4
New Mexico	14.2	15.4	15.2	15.7	18.6	16.0	11.0	12.3	9.5	4.1	4.5	4.5	4.7	5.6	4.9	3.5	4.0	3.2
New York	365.0	400.0	430.0	420.0	482.0	429.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	4.7	5.1	5.6	5.4	6.2	5.6	(2)	(2)	(2)
North Carolina	70.0	79.2	83.9	78.6	86.5	100.2	(2)	(2)	(2)	3.6	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.4	5.5	(2)	(2)	(2)
North Dakota	9.7	10.6	10.4	12.0	13.7	11.7	10.6	11.6	6.7	3.8	4.1	4.1	4.8	5.4	4.6	4.1	4.5	2.5
Ohio	126.4	154.1	187.8	214.2	285.3	218.7	183.7	306.4	151.0	3.2	3.9	4.8	5.5	7.3	5.5	4.7	7.8	3.8
Oklahoma	35.3	38.7	43.2	43.1	51.6	43.7	40.5	49.9	(2)	3.8	4.2	4.7	4.7	5.6	4.8	4.5	5.6	(2)
Oregon	32.5	35.3	35.3	38.2	45.3	36.5	35.1	52.4	40.9	4.0	4.6	4.7	5.2	6.2	5.1	5.0	7.5	5.9
Pennsylvania	202.6	266.6	332.3	367.8	440.7	391.9	423.8	498.2	301.0	4.4	5.8	7.2	7.9	9.4	8.3	8.9	10.5	6.4
Puerto Rico	90.5	80.0	81.0	84.0	82.0	76.0	99.0	89.0	82.0	11.4	10.7	11.3	12.3	12.5	12.1	13.8	13.9	13.0
Rhode Island	18.1	22.8	25.3	24.9	27.7	23.8	26.8	40.3	32.2	5.1	6.4	7.1	7.0	7.8	6.7	7.6	11.4	9.1
South Carolina	32.9	38.3	40.7	39.6	49.6	39.8	37.7	48.3	40.7	3.4	4.0	4.3	4.2	5.3	4.4	4.2	5.5	4.7
South Dakota	8.5	9.0	9.4	8.0	8.4	7.9	7.2	7.9	(2)	3.2	3.3	3.5	2.8	3.1	2.9	2.7	3.0	(2)
Tennessee	52.8	63.4	76.6	86.3	108.4	88.9	81.8	121.5	89.0	3.5	4.3	5.3	6.0	7.6	6.3	6.4	9.4	7.1
Texas	143.8	160.1	180.3	174.9	202.5	181.7	164.6	186.3	142.0	3.7	4.2	4.8	4.8	5.6	5.1	4.6	5.3	4.0
Utah	19.3	19.3	17.6	15.9	17.3	15.4	14.4	16.2	10.9	5.1	5.1	4.7	4.5	5.0	4.6	4.4	5.2	3.6
Vermont	6.9	9.0	9.8	9.0	10.8	8.2	7.1	10.3	(2)	4.2	5.7	6.2	5.8	7.0	5.4	4.7	6.8	(2)
Virginia	43.0	47.9	49.3	51.6	65.4	59.0	59.2	72.2	48.1	2.7	3.1	3.3	3.5	4.5	4.1	4.2	5.2	3.5
Washington	58.6	69.8	67.4	60.4	74.2	69.4	61.8	76.3	55.0	5.1	6.1	6.0	5.4	6.8	6.4	5.7	7.2	5.2
West Virginia	42.5	47.0	56.2	65.6	80.2	73.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	7.1	7.9	9.5	10.8	12.8	11.5	(2)	(2)	(2)
Wisconsin	51.8	59.1	64.4	64.7	82.0	64.9	52.3	82.4	48.8	3.0	3.5	3.8	4.1	5.2	4.1	3.4	5.4	3.2
Wyoming	5.0	5.6	8.0	8.3	8.9	6.1	(2)	(2)	(2)	3.6	4.0	5.6	6.0	6.4	4.4	(2)	(2)	(2)

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.
[2] Comparable data not available.
[3] Data relate to the standard metropolitan statistical area.

NOTE: Data for years prior to 1965 have been revised for several States.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–4. Insured Unemployment and Insured Unemployment Rates Under State Programs, by State: Annual Averages, 1957–65

State	Insured unemployment (weekly average, thousands)									Insured unemployment as percent of average covered employment								
	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957
United States	1,327.6	1,605.4	1,805.8	1,783.1	2,290.3	1,905.8	1,682.5	2,508.9	1,449.8	3.0	3.8	4.3	4.4	5.6	4.8	4.4	6.4	3.6
Alabama	14.9	17.9	22.9	25.9	32.1	28.7	26.7	36.8	22.2	2.6	3.2	4.3	5.0	6.1	5.5	5.2	7.1	4.2
Alaska	3.1	3.0	3.5	3.5	4.1	3.0	3.5	3.9	3.2	8.4	8.9	10.6	10.8	12.3	9.8	12.5	13.6	10.7
Arizona	10.9	10.5	9.8	9.7	11.0	8.3	7.9	9.4	5.2	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.9	4.7	3.8	3.9	4.7	2.8
Arkansas	12.1	13.9	15.5	16.5	20.5	16.7	13.9	19.7	14.4	3.7	4.5	5.2	5.9	7.6	6.3	5.6	7.9	5.8
California	233.1	231.1	227.6	208.8	243.8	206.8	145.4	218.2	121.6	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.4	6.4	5.5	4.1	6.2	3.4
Colorado	7.0	7.6	10.9	10.7	10.7	9.0	6.6	9.0	4.9	1.8	2.0	2.9	2.9	3.1	2.8	2.2	3.0	1.6
Connecticut	20.3	27.4	28.4	26.7	37.9	34.1	31.7	51.8	24.1	2.5	3.4	3.6	3.5	5.0	4.6	4.4	7.0	3.1
Delaware	2.5	3.6	3.5	4.2	5.3	3.9	4.1	5.3	3.0	1.9	2.7	2.8	3.4	4.3	3.1	3.3	4.3	2.4
District of Columbia	4.9	5.5	6.0	5.2	5.9	5.1	4.6	6.2	4.5	1.6	1.9	2.1	2.0	2.3	2.0	1.9	2.6	1.8
Florida	21.2	25.5	30.8	34.8	42.4	31.9	26.4	32.6	18.3	2.0	2.6	3.2	3.8	4.7	3.6	3.2	4.0	2.4
Georgia	15.3	19.7	33.1	25.3	37.9	31.7	27.0	39.9	27.0	1.8	2.4	3.0	3.4	5.0	4.3	3.8	5.6	3.8
Hawaii	4.6	5.1	6.7	6.7	5.9	3.7	3.0	3.3	2.8	2.6	3.0	4.0	3.9	3.4	2.7	2.6	3.0	2.6
Idaho	4.3	5.6	5.8	5.8	6.9	5.8	4.9	6.0	5.0	3.4	4.5	4.4	4.9	6.0	5.1	4.6	5.6	4.8
Illinois	52.1	67.6	83.8	83.0	112.0	90.3	84.2	139.6	67.6	1.9	2.5	3.2	3.2	4.3	3.4	3.3	5.3	2.5
Indiana	18.5	26.4	30.1	33.6	51.7	40.1	32.0	62.2	33.1	1.6	2.3	2.7	3.2	4.7	3.8	3.1	5.9	3.0
Iowa	6.7	8.5	9.3	11.0	15.0	11.9	8.0	11.7	8.8	1.4	1.9	2.1	2.5	3.3	2.7	1.9	2.8	2.1
Kansas	8.4	9.5	10.4	9.7	12.7	12.8	9.3	12.7	8.5	2.3	2.7	2.9	2.8	3.7	3.6	2.7	3.6	2.4
Kentucky	15.8	20.3	21.5	24.9	34.9	29.6	26.3	45.5	32.6	3.2	4.3	4.7	5.7	7.8	6.7	6.1	10.4	7.2
Louisiana	16.7	19.3	23.2	26.1	33.8	28.5	25.3	26.2	13.0	2.8	3.4	4.3	4.9	6.1	5.1	4.6	4.6	2.3
Maine	6.6	9.3	11.0	10.5	15.7	13.7	13.5	18.9	10.9	3.4	4.9	5.7	5.5	8.2	7.2	7.3	10.1	5.6
Maryland	18.3	23.1	25.9	30.0	36.7	33.7	32.6	37.8	17.2	2.4	3.1	3.6	4.4	5.4	5.0	5.0	5.6	2.5
Massachusetts	60.1	77.1	83.7	74.2	85.8	76.2	64.9	90.0	61.1	3.9	5.0	5.4	4.9	5.7	5.1	4.5	6.1	4.0
Michigan	38.2	52.1	62.5	76.4	131.9	93.9	88.4	199.8	92.9	2.0	2.9	3.5	4.5	7.3	5.3	5.3	11.2	4.8
Minnesota	21.7	27.9	29.8	28.3	35.2	28.9	26.5	35.8	22.3	2.9	3.8	4.1	4.0	4.9	4.2	3.9	5.4	3.5
Mississippi	7.8	11.4	13.2	13.4	19.0	15.4	13.3	18.1	14.6	2.6	3.9	4.7	5.0	7.0	5.8	5.2	7.3	6.0
Missouri	25.6	30.9	35.8	38.0	47.9	39.7	33.0	47.3	30.0	2.5	3.1	3.7	4.0	5.0	4.2	3.6	5.1	3.2
Montana	4.3	5.0	4.9	5.3	8.4	7.7	7.2	8.6	6.0	3.8	4.4	4.4	4.9	7.7	7.0	6.7	7.9	5.2
Nebraska	5.3	5.4	6.1	6.0	6.5	5.4	4.2	6.2	5.2	2.2	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.8	2.4	2.0	3.0	2.5
Nevada	5.7	5.3	4.1	3.6	4.6	3.6	3.2	4.5	2.7	4.7	4.6	4.1	4.2	5.7	4.8	4.9	6.8	4.2
New Hampshire	3.3	5.6	6.9	5.3	7.5	6.4	5.9	9.6	5.9	2.1	3.6	4.3	3.5	4.9	4.3	4.1	6.8	4.2
New Jersey	64.7	78.9	86.4	80.3	93.8	85.1	81.5	115.8	79.6	3.9	4.9	5.4	5.2	6.0	5.6	5.5	7.7	5.2
New Mexico	5.6	6.0	6.3	6.4	8.3	6.5	4.0	4.9	3.3	3.3	3.7	3.9	4.0	5.2	4.1	2.7	3.4	2.4
New York	201.7	237.0	263.1	241.3	287.6	252.6	255.5	318.2	187.1	3.9	4.7	5.2	4.8	5.7	5.1	5.2	6.4	3.8
North Carolina	25.2	33.2	36.2	35.0	47.2	38.0	34.3	51.4	38.9	2.5	3.4	3.8	3.8	5.2	4.3	4.1	6.2	4.7
North Dakota	3.2	3.5	3.3	3.5	4.2	3.8	3.1	3.2	2.4	4.2	4.9	4.8	5.2	6.2	5.5	4.8	4.9	3.8
Ohio	46.3	66.8	87.9	96.7	138.9	112.6	71.6	156.6	65.1	1.9	2.8	3.7	4.2	5.7	4.7	3.1	6.5	2.5
Oklahoma	13.1	15.1	17.3	16.8	21.3	17.8	14.8	20.0	12.3	3.3	3.9	4.5	4.5	5.7	4.8	4.1	5.5	3.4
Oregon	15.7	18.1	18.4	19.5	26.0	20.0	16.7	26.5	22.6	3.5	4.3	4.5	4.9	6.5	5.2	4.6	7.6	6.4
Pennsylvania	86.0	127.6	169.3	181.2	234.9	197.6	198.4	283.0	156.4	2.9	4.4	5.8	6.3	7.9	6.7	6.8	9.4	5.0
Puerto Rico [1]	33.0	32.1	30.5	15.7	15.1					6.8	6.5	6.8	6.6	6.9				
Rhode Island	8.5	11.2	13.0	11.9	14.7	12.9	12.6	19.4	16.3	3.4	4.6	5.4	5.0	6.2	5.5	5.5	8.4	6.8
South Carolina	10.4	13.3	14.3	13.3	18.3	14.1	12.8	19.1	15.0	2.2	2.9	3.2	3.1	4.3	3.4	3.3	4.9	3.8
South Dakota	2.1	2.4	2.6	2.2	2.2	2.1	1.5	1.8	1.7	2.6	3.0	3.1	2.7	2.9	2.8	2.1	2.6	2.5
Tennessee	20.7	27.0	32.5	34.8	45.3	37.0	31.1	49.6	39.2	2.8	3.8	4.7	5.3	6.9	5.8	5.1	8.1	6.2
Texas	38.2	45.2	52.9	50.0	59.8	54.0	47.1	61.2	30.2	1.9	2.4	2.9	2.8	3.4	3.1	2.8	3.5	1.8
Utah	7.9	8.0	7.2	6.2	7.0	6.0	5.4	6.9	4.3	4.0	4.0	3.6	3.3	3.8	3.4	3.4	4.2	2.6
Vermont	2.8	3.8	4.5	3.5	4.6	3.4	2.8	4.4	2.8	3.6	5.0	5.9	4.8	6.2	4.8	4.2	6.4	3.9
Virginia	8.9	12.0	13.6	14.6	21.6	18.3	17.1	23.8	13.3	1.1	1.5	1.8	2.1	3.1	2.7	2.6	3.6	2.0
Washington	31.4	41.1	40.8	36.1	45.3	41.3	34.8	43.6	32.0	5.0	6.5	6.4	6.0	7.5	6.8	5.9	7.4	5.4
West Virginia	11.8	14.7	18.6	21.3	27.6	25.4	28.4	39.7	14.1	3.6	4.6	5.9	6.8	8.4	7.5	8.3	11.0	3.8
Wisconsin	19.6	25.3	27.4	26.8	39.5	28.9	23.2	41.1	23.0	2.0	2.7	3.0	3.0	4.3	3.2	2.7	4.8	2.7
Wyoming	1.7	2.0	3.0	3.2	3.2	2.3	2.0	2.4	1.6	2.7	3.0	4.5	4.8	4.6	3.5	3.4	4.0	2.6

[1] Program effective January 1961, with program for sugarcane workers effective July 1963; rates exclude sugarcane workers as comparable covered employment data are not yet available.

NOTE: Comparability between years for a given State or for the same year among States is affected by changes or differences in statutory or administrative factors.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–5. Total Unemployment and Total Unemployment Rates in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–65

Major labor area	Total unemployment (thousands)						Total unemployment as percent of total work force					
	1965 [1]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1965 [1]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Alabama:												
Birmingham	9.0	9.6	12.5	15.4	19.1	17.2	3.5	4.0	5.1	6.3	7.7	6.9
Mobile	5.0	5.6	5.8	7.1	8.7	7.4	3.8	4.2	4.4	5.5	6.7	5.7
Arizona:												
Phoenix	14.5	12.9	12.8	13.3	15.0	11.7	4.8	4.4	4.6	5.0	5.8	4.8
Arkansas:												
Little Rock-North Little Rock	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.8	4.9	3.9	2.3	2.6	2.9	3.6	4.7	3.9
California:												
Fresno	12.2	11.9	12.2	12.3	13.2	10.4	7.3	7.3	7.7	8.0	8.6	7.0
Los Angeles-Long Beach	170.1	167.3	162.2	150.6	179.9	145.1	5.8	5.8	5.7	5.5	6.7	5.5
Sacramento	16.4	15.8	15.0	15.1	15.4	13.3	5.8	5.7	5.6	5.8	6.2	5.5
San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario	22.2	18.9	17.8	16.9	20.6	17.7	6.7	6.0	6.0	5.9	7.5	6.6
San Diego	25.1	25.6	25.8	27.0	25.3	21.1	7.3	7.5	7.7	7.9	7.5	6.4
San Francisco-Oakland	65.3	66.6	65.4	62.2	69.2	58.3	5.1	5.3	5.4	5.2	5.9	5.1
San Jose	20.4	19.8	17.4	16.3	16.8	14.4	6.1	6.1	5.7	5.7	6.4	5.9
Stockton	8.3	8.4	8.9	8.8	9.2	8.2	7.6	7.9	8.6	8.6	9.2	8.3
Colorado:												
Denver	13.5	14.5	17.0	15.2	14.7	12.8	3.1	3.3	3.9	3.5	3.6	3.2
Connecticut:												
Bridgeport	7.2	8.2	8.1	8.7	11.3	9.9	4.6	5.4	5.4	5.9	7.6	6.8
Hartford	9.2	10.9	10.9	11.3	14.5	12.2	3.0	3.7	3.7	3.9	5.1	4.4
New Britain	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.8	4.5	3.6	5.2	5.5	5.9	6.1	9.6	7.6
New Haven	5.8	6.9	6.9	7.0	8.3	6.8	3.6	4.5	4.6	4.7	5.5	4.7
Stamford	2.9	3.3	3.2	3.0	3.1	2.1	3.6	4.2	4.1	3.7	3.8	2.9
Waterbury	4.2	5.1	5.3	5.3	7.2	5.8	5.1	6.3	6.5	6.6	9.0	7.3
Delaware:												
Wilmington	5.2	6.6	6.7	8.1	10.1	7.7	2.7	3.5	3.7	4.6	5.7	4.4
District of Columbia:												
Washington	22.9	23.3	24.1	22.1	23.8	21.5	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.7	2.6
Florida:												
Jacksonville	4.1	4.7	6.3	6.4	7.8	6.2	2.1	2.5	3.5	3.5	4.2	3.3
Miami	19.9	26.0	38.9	41.7	39.4	27.4	4.5	5.8	8.8	9.5	9.4	6.5
Tampa-St. Petersburg	9.1	10.1	12.1	15.0	18.1	15.1	3.1	3.5	4.3	5.2	6.4	5.4
Georgia:												
Atlanta	13.0	13.9	14.8	16.1	22.3	18.7	2.4	2.7	3.0	3.4	4.9	4.2
Augusta	2.0	2.7	3.0	3.1	4.0	3.2	2.7	3.3	3.9	3.9	5.4	4.2
Columbus	2.1	2.4	2.8	3.0	3.6	3.4	3.0	3.5	4.2	4.6	5.6	5.1
Macon	2.1	2.3	2.6	2.7	3.4	2.7	2.7	3.0	3.4	3.7	4.5	3.7
Savannah	2.4	2.8	3.2	3.4	5.0	4.1	3.5	4.2	4.8	5.1	7.4	6.0
Hawaii:												
Honolulu	7.1	7.7	9.3	9.1	7.7	5.3	3.3	3.8	4.7	4.7	4.0	2.9
Illinois:												
Chicago	89.0	109.3	126.1	127.7	155.9	119.7	3.0	3.7	4.3	4.4	5.4	4.2
Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	3.7	3.9	4.5	5.0	[2]	[2]	2.5	2.8	3.3	3.7	[2]	[2]
Peoria	3.8	4.3	5.3	6.0	7.5	6.3	2.8	3.2	4.2	4.8	6.0	4.9
Rockford	2.6	3.1	3.9	4.2	[2]	[2]	2.4	3.0	3.9	4.3	[2]	[2]
Indiana:												
Evansville	3.0	3.0	3.4	[2]	[2]	[2]	3.3	3.3	3.9	[2]	[2]	[2]
Fort Wayne	2.2	2.8	3.7	4.0	5.1	4.9	2.0	2.7	3.6	3.9	5.1	4.9
Gary-Hammond-East Chicago	6.2	6.4	10.0	13.1	14.8	12.2	2.8	3.0	4.8	6.2	6.9	5.5
Indianapolis	9.6	12.9	14.4	[2]	[2]	[2]	2.4	3.2	3.6	[2]	[2]	[2]
South Bend	4.2	7.1	4.5	[2]	[2]	[2]	4.1	6.9	4.3	[2]	[2]	[2]
Terre Haute	2.9	3.4	3.7	[2]	[2]	[2]	4.9	5.8	6.3	[2]	[2]	[2]
Iowa:												
Cedar Rapids	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.5	2.4	1.8	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.4	3.8	2.8
Des Moines	2.3	2.8	2.9	3.6	4.5	3.7	1.8	2.3	2.4	3.0	3.6	3.0
Kansas:												
Wichita	5.6	5.5	6.2	6.0	8.1	8.0	3.6	3.6	4.1	3.9	5.3	5.2
Kentucky:												
Louisville	9.6	11.3	13.5	15.2	22.0	19.7	3.1	3.7	4.5	5.2	7.5	6.7
Louisiana:												
Baton Rouge	2.8	3.4	3.9	4.5	5.9	4.9	2.8	3.6	4.3	5.0	6.6	5.4
New Orleans	15.4	16.7	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	3.9	4.4	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]
Shreveport	3.9	4.4	4.9	5.6	6.5	5.6	3.6	4.1	4.6	5.1	5.9	5.2
Maine:												
Portland	2.6	2.9	2.9	3.0	4.0	4.3	3.9	4.4	4.5	4.6	6.1	6.6
Maryland:												
Baltimore	27.1	31.8	35.7	40.0	45.5	42.1	3.6	4.3	4.8	5.5	6.3	5.8
Massachusetts:												
Boston	51.2	60.4	59.0	57.4	61.2	53.7	4.1	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.8	4.2
Brockton	2.8	3.6	4.0	3.7	3.7	3.4	5.1	7.0	8.0	7.4	7.5	7.1
Fall River	4.2	5.7	5.7	5.4	5.4	5.2	7.9	10.5	10.2	9.6	9.5	9.1
Lawrence-Haverhill	6.0	6.2	6.4	[2]	[2]	[2]	6.7	6.8	6.9	[2]	[2]	[2]
Lowell	4.5	4.8	4.6	[2]	[2]	[2]	7.8	8.5	8.3	[2]	[2]	[2]
New Bedford	4.2	4.8	5.0	4.9	6.1	5.6	6.7	7.8	8.0	7.8	9.7	8.8
Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke	10.8	12.8	14.3	[2]	[2]	[2]	5.1	6.1	6.8	[2]	[2]	[2]
Worcester	6.0	7.4	8.8	7.7	9.4	7.9	4.2	5.3	6.3	5.4	6.7	5.7
Michigan:												
Battle Creek	2.1	2.7	3.2	3.8	5.2	4.1	3.2	4.2	5.0	6.0	8.0	6.3
Detroit	49.3	59.1	69.8	94.9	157.3	98.7	3.3	4.1	5.0	6.9	11.1	6.9
Flint	3.7	4.5	4.9	6.1	13.6	7.8	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.9	8.8	5.0
Grand Rapids	4.5	6.3	7.2	7.7	11.3	9.0	2.4	3.3	3.9	4.2	6.2	4.9
Kalamazoo	1.9	2.2	2.9	3.0	3.9	3.3	2.6	3.1	4.1	4.3	5.6	4.8
Lansing	2.3	3.6	4.3	4.6	8.6	4.6	1.9	3.1	3.8	4.1	7.6	4.1
Muskegon-Muskegon Heights	1.9	2.7	2.6	3.0	4.9	4.3	3.5	5.0	4.7	5.4	8.6	7.5
Saginaw	1.3	1.5	2.3	3.1	5.5	3.5	1.8	2.1	3.4	4.6	8.1	5.2
Minnesota:												
Duluth-Superior	3.2	4.0	4.8	5.7	5.8	4.8	5.3	6.8	7.8	9.2	9.4	7.6
Minneapolis-St. Paul	19.7	23.7	24.4	23.9	32.9	26.3	2.7	3.4	3.5	3.5	4.9	4.0
Mississippi:												
Jackson	2.2	2.6	3.2	3.3	3.8	3.5	2.3	2.8	3.5	3.6	4.2	4.0

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–5. Total Unemployment and Total Unemployment Rates in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–65—Continued

Major labor area	Total unemployment (thousands)						Total unemployment as percent of total work force					
	1965 [1]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1965 [1]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Missouri:												
Kansas City	23.5	24.6	25.6	27.4	(2)	(2)	4.5	4.8	5.0	5.5	(2)	(2)
St. Louis	31.3	36.4	43.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	3.4	4.0	4.8	(2)	(2)	(2)
Nebraska:												
Omaha	6.4	6.4	7.2	7.1	7.6	6.4	3.2	3.2	3.6	3.5	3.8	3.2
New Hampshire:												
Manchester	1.7	2.2	2.6	2.3	3.2	2.9	3.3	4.4	5.0	4.5	6.1	5.4
New Jersey:												
Atlantic City	4.8	5.7	5.8	6.0	6.7	6.3	6.5	7.8	8.0	8.3	9.5	9.1
Jersey City	16.3	19.3	20.9	19.7	23.3	21.6	5.7	6.7	7.1	6.6	7.8	7.2
Newark	40.0	46.6	49.5	47.6	54.0	49.7	4.8	5.6	6.0	5.8	6.7	6.2
New Brunswick-Perth Amboy	10.8	12.4	13.6	14.0	14.8	12.8	4.4	5.1	5.7	6.0	6.5	5.8
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	26.7	30.7	29.5	28.0	33.4	30.6	5.2	6.1	5.9	5.8	7.1	6.6
Trenton	5.5	5.8	6.8	7.2	9.1	8.0	4.0	4.3	5.1	5.5	7.0	6.1
New Mexico:												
Albuquerque	4.3	4.1	4.0	4.3	5.3	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.8	4.3	5.3	4.1
New York:												
Albany-Schenectady-Troy	9.6	11.3	12.3	12.7	15.9	15.1	3.4	4.0	4.4	4.6	5.7	5.4
Binghamton	4.1	4.7	5.2	5.4	5.9	5.4	3.4	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.9	4.5
Buffalo	21.9	26.8	34.0	38.2	48.2	37.8	4.2	5.2	6.6	7.3	9.1	7.0
New York	260.2	279.1	294.8	280.0	313.1	277.6	4.9	5.2	5.6	5.3	5.9	5.3
Rochester	9.7	10.5	13.6	12.8	15.6	13.9	2.8	3.1	4.1	3.9	4.8	4.4
Syracuse	8.1	9.9	11.0	11.1	14.5	12.6	3.5	4.3	4.7	4.7	6.2	5.5
Utica-Rome	6.5	8.0	8.3	8.0	9.6	9.8	5.1	6.2	6.3	5.9	7.1	7.2
North Carolina:												
Asheville	2.1	2.5	2.5	2.7	4.0	3.2	3.5	4.3	4.6	5.0	7.1	5.9
Charlotte	4.4	5.0	5.5	5.6	6.2	5.4	2.7	3.2	3.6	3.8	4.3	3.9
Durham	2.1	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.6	2.7	4.0	5.1	5.4	5.2	5.2	5.5
Greensboro-High Point	2.7	3.4	3.7	3.8	6.1	4.8	2.1	2.6	2.9	3.0	5.1	4.1
Winston-Salem	3.2	3.2	3.5	3.7	4.4	3.8	3.4	3.5	3.9	4.2	5.0	4.3
Ohio:												
Akron	6.4	8.7	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	2.7	3.7	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Canton	4.2	5.3	7.8	8.9	12.0	8.4	3.0	4.0	5.9	6.7	9.0	6.2
Cincinnati	18.8	22.7	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	3.7	4.5	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Cleveland	25.1	29.9	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	2.9	3.5	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Columbus	9.6	11.4	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	2.7	3.3	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Dayton	7.4	8.3	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	2.3	2.7	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Hamilton-Middletown	3.0	4.0	5.1	5.7	6.7	5.1	4.2	5.6	7.2	8.0	9.0	6.6
Lorain-Elyria	2.4	3.2	4.0	4.4	6.6	5.3	3.1	4.3	5.5	6.2	9.1	7.2
Steubenville-Weirton, W. Va.	2.0	2.2	3.8	4.0	4.5	4.0	3.0	3.3	6.0	6.3	7.0	6.3
Toledo	7.7	9.5	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	3.2	4.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Youngstown-Warren	6.6	7.4	11.9	15.9	20.1	16.0	3.4	4.0	6.4	8.3	10.1	7.8
Oklahoma:												
Oklahoma City	7.9	8.3	8.2	8.2	9.6	7.9	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.6	4.3	3.7
Tulsa	6.3	6.9	8.4	8.0	10.0	8.0	3.5	3.9	4.8	4.7	5.9	4.7
Oregon:												
Portland	13.9	15.9	16.4	17.9	22.5	16.7	3.6	4.3	4.5	5.1	6.5	4.9
Pennsylvania:												
Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton	6.7	9.3	12.4	12.4	15.3	13.0	2.9	4.2	5.6	5.6	7.0	5.9
Altoona	3.3	4.4	5.2	5.5	6.3	5.5	6.4	8.5	10.0	10.6	12.1	10.3
Erie	3.8	5.3	7.0	7.4	10.1	9.3	3.8	5.4	7.0	7.6	10.4	9.5
Harrisburg	5.0	6.2	8.1	9.4	10.7	8.9	2.7	3.4	4.5	5.3	6.1	5.0
Johnstown	4.4	5.8	8.9	13.1	16.7	12.4	5.0	6.6	10.1	14.5	17.8	13.0
Lancaster	2.3	3.5	4.0	3.8	5.3	4.8	1.8	2.8	3.2	3.1	4.4	4.0
Philadelphia	83.3	109.7	122.7	120.6	134.9	120.5	4.4	5.8	6.5	6.4	7.2	6.5
Pittsburgh	32.2	48.7	72.5	87.2	104.3	89.0	3.6	5.4	7.9	9.4	11.0	9.3
Reading	3.4	5.1	6.0	5.7	7.7	6.2	2.6	4.0	4.7	4.5	6.2	5.0
Scranton	6.7	8.6	10.9	11.3	13.1	12.6	7.1	9.1	11.3	11.5	13.2	12.6
Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton	8.6	10.5	13.2	13.8	17.4	17.4	6.5	7.9	9.8	10.3	13.0	12.9
York	3.4	5.0	7.0	7.0	7.9	7.1	2.6	3.8	5.5	5.5	6.2	5.7
Puerto Rico:												
Mayaguez	4.4	3.8	4.2	3.5	3.2	2.8	14.8	13.1	14.5	12.9	12.5	11.5
Ponce	6.5	6.1	6.3	5.4	4.5	4.5	14.8	14.0	14.9	13.3	11.6	11.7
San Juan	15.0	14.2	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	5.5	5.4	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Rhode Island:												
Providence-Pawtucket	18.7	22.3	24.4	23.6	26.0	22.8	5.0	6.0	6.6	6.6	7.3	6.5
South Carolina:												
Charleston	3.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	3.3	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Greenville	4.1	5.1	5.4	(2)	(2)	(2)	3.4	4.4	4.7	(2)	(2)	(2)
Tennessee:												
Chattanooga	4.1	6.4	8.6	9.1	9.3	7.5	3.2	5.1	7.1	7.6	7.7	6.3
Knoxville	4.3	5.9	7.0	7.2	11.1	8.4	2.8	3.9	4.7	5.0	7.7	5.9
Memphis	9.2	9.8	11.0	12.0	14.4	12.7	3.3	3.6	4.0	4.6	5.5	4.8
Nashville	6.2	7.7	6.9	8.3	9.5	8.7	2.7	3.5	3.3	4.2	4.9	4.6
Texas:												
Austin	2.8	2.9	3.3	3.0	3.7	3.5	2.8	3.1	3.6	3.4	4.4	4.2
Beaumont-Port Arthur	5.6	7.3	8.3	8.0	9.1	9.6	4.8	6.1	6.7	6.5	7.5	8.0
Corpus Christi	3.1	3.3	3.6	4.2	5.2	5.2	3.7	4.1	4.7	5.5	7.0	6.9
Dallas	17.5	19.0	19.8	18.5	23.9	20.8	3.1	3.5	3.8	3.7	4.9	4.4
El Paso	4.6	5.0	5.3	5.0	5.2	4.5	4.5	5.0	5.3	4.9	5.0	4.5
Fort Worth	8.5	9.7	10.8	11.3	13.2	11.1	3.4	3.9	4.5	4.8	5.7	4.9
Houston	17.9	21.5	25.1	23.2	26.1	23.9	2.9	3.5	4.2	4.0	4.7	4.5
San Antonio	9.8	10.7	12.1	11.5	12.6	10.1	4.0	4.3	5.1	4.9	5.4	4.5
Utah:												
Salt Lake City	8.7	7.9	7.0	5.8	6.7	5.7	4.4	4.1	3.7	3.2	3.8	3.4
Virginia:												
Newport News-Hampton	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.6	3.2	3.2	2.2	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.9	4.1
Norfolk-Portsmouth	5.2	5.6	5.8	6.2	7.8	7.6	2.6	2.9	3.0	3.3	4.1	4.1
Richmond	4.6	4.9	4.7	(2)	(2)	(2)	2.0	2.2	2.2	(2)	(2)	(2)
Roanoke	2.0	2.2	2.1	2.9	4.7	4.6	2.5	2.9	2.9	4.0	6.5	6.5

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–5. Total Unemployment and Total Unemployment Rates in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–65—Continued

Major labor area	Total unemployment (thousands)						Total unemployment as percent of total work force					
	1965 [1]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1965 [1]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Washington:												
Seattle	25.0	31.4	29.7	24.3	30.5	28.0	5.1	6.1	6.0	4.8	6.5	6.1
Spokane	4.6	5.5	6.0	6.6	7.4	6.7	5.0	6.4	6.3	6.9	7.6	6.7
Tacoma	5.5	6.4	6.4	5.7	7.5	6.7	5.0	6.0	6.1	5.5	7.3	6.5
West Virginia:												
Charleston	5.0	5.9	6.3	6.6	8.1	7.1	5.6	6.4	6.8	7.1	8.5	7.4
Huntington-Ashland	5.6	6.8	7.7	9.2	10.9	10.9	6.1	7.4	8.6	10.4	12.2	12.0
Wheeling	4.3	5.1	6.9	8.3	10.9	9.9	6.5	7.7	10.3	12.2	15.4	13.9
Wisconsin:												
Kenosha	1.4	1.9	1.4	1.6	2.4	1.6	3.4	4.5	3.2	4.0	6.0	3.8
Madison	2.4	2.6	2.9	2.6	3.0	2.7	2.1	2.4	2.8	2.6	3.0	2.7
Milwaukee	15.1	18.5	20.6	21.0	28.4	19.9	2.7	3.4	3.9	3.9	5.3	3.7
Racine	1.8	1.9	2.3	2.4	3.3	2.6	2.9	3.3	4.2	4.5	6.3	5.0

[1] Preliminary (11-month) average.
[2] Comparable data not available.

NOTE: Data for years prior to 1965 have been revised for several areas.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table D–6. Insured Unemployment and Insured Unemployment Rates Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–65

Major labor area	Insured unemployment (weekly average, thousands)						Insured unemployment as percent of average covered employment					
	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Alabama:												
Birmingham	3.5	3.7	5.1	6.6	7.6	7.3	1.9	2.2	3.0	4.1	4.7	4.5
Mobile	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.6	3.4	2.7	2.3	3.0	3.3	4.5	5.7	4.5
Arizona:												
Phoenix	6.1	5.4	5.2	5.5	6.3	4.3	3.3	3.1	3.2	3.5	4.2	3.0
Arkansas:												
Little Rock-North Little Rock	.8	.9	1.2	1.4	2.4	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.8	2.3	3.2	2.6
California:												
Fresno	5.5	5.9	6.0	6.3	6.6	5.0	6.9	7.6	8.2	8.9	9.2	7.4
Los Angeles-Long Beach	94.2	101.1	102.4	87.8	114.9	91.7	4.3	4.4	4.5	4.1	5.4	4.4
Sacramento	8.7	6.4	6.2	7.0	6.3	5.3	6.0	5.5	5.4	6.6	5.8	5.2
San Bernardino-Riverside-Ontario	11.5	9.1	8.6	7.9	9.6	9.0	6.4	5.8	5.8	5.3	7.0	6.6
San Diego	13.2	13.5	13.8	15.2	14.2	12.8	6.4	6.4	6.3	7.0	6.2	5.6
San Francisco-Oakland	35.1	35.9	36.0	33.7	37.9	31.2	4.5	4.0	4.3	4.1	4.9	4.0
San Jose	11.1	11.0	9.6	8.6	9.8	8.1	5.1	5.1	4.7	4.6	5.6	5.1
Stockton	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.8	4.7	4.3	7.7	8.2	8.6	9.7	9.5	8.8
Colorado:												
Denver	4.1	4.6	6.2	5.4	5.2	4.0	1.6	1.7	2.3	2.1	2.1	1.8
Connecticut:												
Bridgeport	3.4	4.3	4.3	4.5	5.8	5.7	3.0	3.7	3.8	4.0	5.2	5.2
Hartford	3.6	5.0	5.1	4.7	7.2	6.3	1.5	2.2	2.3	2.2	3.4	3.1
New Britain	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.5	2.4	2.0	3.8	4.0	4.3	4.2	6.5	5.4
New Haven	2.4	3.3	3.3	3.3	4.2	3.7	2.2	3.1	3.2	3.2	4.0	3.8
Stamford	1.1	1.5	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.5	2.1	2.9	3.0	2.5	2.8	2.5
Waterbury	2.0	2.7	3.0	2.5	3.7	3.4	3.4	4.6	4.9	4.1	6.2	5.6
Delaware:												
Wilmington	2.4	3.3	3.1	4.3	4.4	3.3	1.9	2.6	2.7	3.8	4.0	2.9
District of Columbia:												
Washington	6.1	7.6	7.2	6.5	8.0	6.3	1.2	1.5	.9	1.8	1.8	1.5
Florida:												
Jacksonville	1.0	1.3	2.0	2.2	3.0	2.0	.9	1.2	1.9	2.1	2.8	1.8
Miami	5.8	6.4	8.4	10.3	11.0	8.7	2.5	2.5	3.4	4.3	4.6	3.5
Tampa-St. Petersburg	3.4	4.0	5.1	5.8	7.4	5.7	1.9	2.4	3.3	3.7	5.0	3.8
Georgia:												
Atlanta	3.5	4.2	4.9	5.4	9.3	7.3	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.8	3.2	2.6
Augusta	.6	.8	.9	.9	2.9	1.1	1.1	1.7	2.0	2.1	3.4	2.6
Columbus	.6	.7	1.1	1.1	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.9	3.0	3.0	4.4	4.1
Macon	.4	.6	.8	.9	1.3	1.0	1.2	1.7	2.5	2.7	4.0	3.1
Savannah	.7	1.0	1.2	1.2	2.2	1.7	1.8	2.5	2.9	3.2	5.6	4.2
Hawaii:												
Honolulu	3.4	3.9	5.0	5.0	4.4	2.6	2.2	2.4	3.4	3.4	3.2	1.9
Illinois:												
Chicago	31.0	42.3	52.3	49.5	68.2	53.8	1.5	2.1	2.7	2.6	4.0	2.6
Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.7	2.8	2.5	1.4	1.5	1.8	2.4	3.7	3.5
Peoria	1.5	1.7	2.3	2.8	3.6	3.1	1.7	2.1	2.9	3.6	4.8	3.9
Rockford	.9	1.1	1.6	1.7	2.5	2.0	1.2	1.6	2.4	2.6	4.2	3.1

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–6. Insured Unemployment and Insured Unemployment Rates Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–65—Continued

Major labor area	Insured unemployment (weekly average, thousands)						Insured unemployment as percent of average covered employment					
	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Indiana:												
Evansville	1.1	1.0	1.3	1.5	2.4	2.2	1.8	2.0	2.4	3.0	4.7	4.2
Fort Wayne	.7	.9	1.3	1.3	2.0	1.6	.8	1.2	1.8	1.8	3.0	2.3
Gary-Hammond-East Chicago	2.4	2.4	4.2	6.2	6.7	5.3	1.4	1.5	2.7	4.0	4.2	3.3
Indianapolis	2.7	3.4	4.0	4.5	6.8	5.5	1.0	1.4	1.7	1.9	3.0	2.4
South Bend	2.7	3.5	2.5	2.2	4.7	2.9	2.0	5.6	3.7	3.5	7.2	4.2
Terre Haute	1.0	.8	.9	1.1	1.4	1.3	3.2	3.0	3.4	4.2	5.0	4.6
Iowa:												
Cedar Rapids	.3	.3	.4	.5	1.0	.7	.6	.8	.9	1.2	2.7	1.7
Des Moines	.7	1.0	1.1	1.4	1.9	1.5	.9	1.2	1.4	1.8	2.5	2.0
Kansas:												
Wichita	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.1	3.1	3.4	2.1	2.0	2.4	2.2	2.8	3.4
Kentucky:												
Louisville	3.5	4.5	5.2	5.9	8.8	8.4	1.7	2.2	2.7	3.1	4.7	4.4
Louisiana:												
Baton Rouge	.8	1.2	1.5	1.7	3.0	1.4	1.5	2.3	2.9	3.5	5.9	5.3
New Orleans	4.4	5.0	6.2	7.5	9.6	7.6	1.7	2.1	2.7	3.5	4.4	3.4
Shreveport	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.7	2.8	3.4	4.1	3.4
Maine:												
Portland	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.9	1.9	2.3	2.9	3.5	3.2	4.7	4.9
Maryland:												
Baltimore	11.6	14.7	16.7	20.0	24.0	21.9	2.2	2.8	3.3	4.0	4.7	4.3
Massachusetts:												
Boston	25.2	31.0	31.4	29.5	33.8	28.9	2.8	3.6	3.6	3.4	3.9	3.5
Brockton	1.7	2.5	3.0	2.7	2.6	3.0	4.4	6.5	8.2	7.4	7.5	7.8
Fall River	3.4	5.0	5.0	4.9	5.0	5.0	8.4	11.8	11.6	11.2	10.7	11.3
Lawrence-Haverhill	3.9	4.7	5.2	4.0	5.2	4.0	5.4	6.5	7.1	5.5	7.8	6.8
Lowell	2.8	3.3	3.4	3.1	3.6	3.7	7.1	8.3	8.4	7.6	9.1	9.4
New Bedford	2.9	3.7	4.0	3.3	(1)	(1)	6.1	7.6	8.1	6.9	(1)	(1)
Springfield-Chicopee-Holyoke	5.5	6.6	7.5	7.8	8.5	8.2	3.7	4.5	5.5	5.4	5.9	5.7
Worcester	3.2	4.2	5.5	4.5	5.8	4.5	3.3	4.4	5.6	4.6	6.0	4.8
Michigan:												
Battle Creek	.8	1.0	1.3	1.4	2.0	1.7	2.0	2.7	.4	4.1	5.7	4.9
Detroit	17.1	24.1	28.7	39.5	77.7	48.4	1.6	2.4	3.0	4.1	8.1	4.9
Flint	1.8	2.2	2.4	3.0	7.7	2.7	1.5	2.0	2.2	2.9	7.7	2.7
Grand Rapids	1.8	2.4	2.6	2.9	4.2	3.3	1.3	2.3	2.6	3.0	4.5	3.5
Kalamazoo	.8	.9	1.3	1.2	1.6	1.4	1.7	2.1	2.9	2.9	3.8	3.1
Lansing	.8	1.5	1.9	2.0	4.6	1.8	1.1	2.3	3.2	3.3	8.0	3.1
Muskegon-Muskegon Heights	.7	1.3	1.1	1.2	2.3	2.1	1.9	3.4	3.1	3.3	6.1	5.4
Saginaw	.5	.6	1.0	1.3	2.9	1.5	.9	1.3	2.2	2.9	6.5	3.2
Minnesota:												
Duluth-Superior	1.4	1.8	2.2	2.0	2.4	2.0	3.8	5.0	6.3	6.1	6.5	6.0
Minneapolis-St. Paul	7.9	10.7	11.4	10.9	14.9	11.1	1.6	2.0	2.3	2.3	3.3	2.6
Mississippi:												
Jackson	.6	.8	1.2	1.2	1.6	1.1	1.6	2.4	2.7	2.5	3.4	2.4
Missouri:												
Kansas City	6.4	7.0	8.8	8.9	12.4	11.8	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.3	4.7	4.2
St. Louis	12.1	14.2	17.1	20.5	27.1	20.3	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.7	4.8	3.6
Nebraska:												
Omaha	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.0	1.9	1.9	2.3	2.3	2.4	1.8
New Hampshire:												
Manchester	1.0	1.5	1.9	1.5	2.0	1.9	2.6	4.2	5.3	4.2	5.8	5.2
New Jersey:												
Atlantic City	2.8	3.2	3.5	3.3	3.8	4.0	6.1	8.1	8.9	8.2	10.1	10.4
Jersey City	7.8	9.5	10.7	9.8	11.6	(1)	4.0	4.7	5.2	4.8	5.7	(1)
Newark	17.9	21.6	23.8	22.2	25.9	26.5	3.2	3.9	4.3	4.1	4.9	4.6
New Brunswick-Perth Amboy	5.5	5.6	7.1	7.3	8.2	6.2	3.4	4.2	4.7	4.8	5.6	5.1
Paterson-Clifton-Passaic	13.5	16.3	16.5	14.7	18.0	19.2	3.7	4.9	4.9	4.6	5.8	5.8
Trenton	2.3	2.6	3.0	3.2	4.3	4.8	2.9	3.3	3.9	4.3	5.9	5.4
New Mexico:												
Albuquerque	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.9	2.9	2.1	2.8	2.7	2.6	3.1	4.7	3.3
New York:												
Albany-Schenectady-Troy	4.2	5.7	6.5	6.4	8.2	8.3	2.2	3.1	3.5	3.6	4.6	4.3
Binghamton	1.6	1.7	2.6	2.1	2.5	2.4	2.1	2.5	3.6	3.0	3.6	3.4
Buffalo	11.1	14.4	18.2	19.5	24.9	19.9	3.1	3.7	5.0	5.4	6.9	5.2
New York	151.7	167.8	182.3	163.9	188.5	168.5	4.0	4.3	4.4	4.5	5.1	4.4
Rochester	5.1	3.6	4.9	4.9	6.6	5.7	2.1	1.7	2.4	2.4	3.4	2.9
Syracuse	3.7	5.0	5.5	5.0	7.2	7.0	2.3	3.2	3.5	3.3	4.7	4.5
Utica-Rome	3.0	4.5	3.4	4.3	5.5	5.7	4.0	5.6	5.5	4.9	5.6	6.3
North Carolina:												
Asheville	.8	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.6	1.2	2.1	3.0	3.5	3.6	5.1	3.8
Charlotte	1.2	1.4	1.7	1.8	2.3	2.0	1.0	1.4	1.7	1.9	2.6	2.3
Durham	.9	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.0	2.8	3.9	4.5	4.1	4.5	4.2
Greensboro-High Point	1.1	1.8	2.2	2.1	3.0	2.3	1.3	2.0	2.5	2.3	3.6	2.9
Winston-Salem	1.2	1.5	1.7	1.6	2.1	1.7	1.8	2.3	2.7	2.6	3.3	2.7
Ohio:												
Akron	2.1	3.3	4.2	4.1	7.6	5.3	1.3	2.2	2.8	2.8	5.1	3.5
Canton	1.6	2.3	3.9	4.8	6.0	4.8	1.6	2.5	4.3	5.2	6.2	5.1
Cincinnati	7.0	7.4	8.4	9.0	12.0	10.0	2.1	2.4	2.6	2.8	4.1	3.2
Cleveland	8.9	12.6	17.1	20.4	30.2	22.4	1.5	2.2	3.0	3.7	5.5	3.9
Columbus	2.8	3.9	4.2	4.0	5.9	5.5	1.3	1.9	2.1	2.1	3.2	2.9
Dayton	2.3	2.9	4.2	4.6	6.7	5.5	1.1	1.5	2.2	2.5	3.8	3.0
Hamilton-Middletown	1.3	1.9	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.0	2.8	4.0	5.5	6.3	7.0	5.8
Lorain-Elyria	.9	1.5	2.0	2.4	3.1	3.2	1.7	3.0	4.0	4.7	6.3	6.1
Steubenville-Weirton, W. Va	.8	.9	1.9	2.2	2.4	2.2	1.6	1.9	4.2	4.6	5.0	4.7
Toledo	2.5	3.0	4.1	5.1	8.5	5.2	1.6	2.3	3.2	4.1	6.7	4.0
Youngstown-Warren	3.0	3.2	5.9	9.1	9.9	9.5	2.1	2.5	4.6	7.1	7.3	6.5
Oklahoma:												
Oklahoma City	2.6	3.0	3.0	2.9	4.1	3.0	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.5	3.8	2.8
Tulsa	2.2	2.5	3.5	3.2	4.7	3.5	2.0	2.3	3.2	3.0	4.5	3.4

Footnotes at end of table.

Table D–6. Insured Unemployment and Insured Unemployment Rates Under State, Federal Employee, and Ex-Servicemen's Programs in 150 Major Labor Areas: Annual Averages, 1960–65—Continued

Major labor area	Insured unemployment (weekly average, thousands)						Insured unemployment as percent of average covered employment					
	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1965	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960
Oregon:												
Portland	6.0	7.2	7.6	8.1	11.2	8.0	2.4	3.1	3.3	3.7	5.2	4.0
Pennsylvania:												
Allentown-Bethlehem-Easton	3.1	5.0	7.4	7.1	8.9	7.7	1.9	3.1	4.5	4.3	5.5	4.7
Altoona	.9	1.5	1.8	1.9	2.1	1.8	3.1	4.9	6.1	6.2	7.2	6.2
Erie	1.8	2.7	3.6	3.7	5.1	4.5	2.5	3.9	5.3	5.5	7.7	6.7
Harrisburg	1.9	2.4	3.4	4.0	4.8	3.8	1.9	2.6	3.6	4.3	5.1	3.9
Johnstown	2.7	3.4	5.0	7.1	9.5	7.3	4.6	5.9	8.7	12.1	15.3	11.2
Lancaster	.9	1.6	2.0	1.7	2.6	2.1	1.0	1.9	2.4	2.1	3.1	2.8
Philadelphia	32.1	48.6	58.0	56.2	65.9	56.8	2.5	3.8	4.6	4.4	5.2	4.6
Pittsburgh	15.7	23.2	35.4	45.7	54.7	47.0	2.4	3.7	5.6	7.1	8.4	6.9
Reading	1.8	3.1	3.9	3.0	4.3	3.8	1.9	3.3	4.2	3.3	5.3	4.2
Scranton	3.5	4.5	6.0	5.7	6.8	6.7	5.5	7.0	9.2	8.8	10.3	10.1
Wilkes-Barre-Hazleton	6.3	6.6	8.6	8.6	10.5	11.5	6.6	7.4	9.3	9.6	11.6	12.0
York	1.6	2.1	3.3	3.4	3.7	3.5	1.7	2.7	4.4	4.5	4.9	4.6
Puerto Rico:[2]												
Mayaguez	1.1	1.0	.6	.8	(1)	(1)	.3	.3	.2	.2	(1)	(1)
Ponce	1.7	1.3	.9	1.0	(1)	(1)	.4	.4	.3	.3	(1)	(1)
San Juan	3.7	3.2	2.1	3.3	(1)	(1)	.8	.8	.7	.9	(1)	(1)
Rhode Island:												
Providence-Pawtucket	8.8	11.7	13.9	12.1	15.7	14.0	3.2	4.3	5.1	4.6	6.0	4.7
South Carolina:												
Charleston	.8	.8	1.0	1.0	1.4	1.1	1.9	2.1	2.9	2.9	4.1	2.8
Greenville	1.3	1.8	1.5	1.2	2.0	1.3	1.6	2.3	2.2	1.9	3.3	2.2
Tennessee:												
Chattanooga	1.3	1.7	2.5	3.1	4.0	3.5	1.7	2.2	3.4	4.1	5.3	4.9
Knoxville	1.4	2.1	2.5	3.2	5.6	4.7	1.7	2.8	2.8	3.9	6.4	5.7
Memphis	2.7	2.9	3.7	4.2	5.3	4.8	1.7	1.9	2.5	3.0	3.8	3.7
Nashville	1.9	2.4	2.2	2.7	3.4	2.9	1.4	2.0	2.1	2.6	3.6	3.1
Texas:												
Austin	.5	.6	.7	.6	.8	.7	1.3	1.5	1.8	1.6	2.4	2.0
Beaumont-Port Arthur	1.9	2.6	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.3	2.5	3.4	3.6	3.9	4.2	4.1
Corpus Christi	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.4	2.2	1.6	2.1	2.8	3.1	3.2	4.9	3.7
Dallas	4.8	5.7	6.1	5.7	8.3	7.3	1.3	1.6	1.7	1.7	2.6	2.3
El Paso	1.8	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.0	3.0	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.3
Fort Worth	2.8	2.6	3.3	3.5	4.0	3.5	1.5	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.8	2.5
Houston	4.5	6.1	7.8	6.5	8.3	7.3	1.2	1.6	2.1	1.8	4.2	2.1
San Antonio	2.6	3.0	3.3	2.7	3.3	2.5	2.0	2.6	2.9	2.6	3.0	1.9
Utah:												
Salt Lake City	3.7	3.5	3.0	2.3	3.2	2.6	3.4	2.8	2.4	1.9	2.8	2.4
Virginia:												
Newport News-Hampton	.6	.6	.6	.6	1.0	.8	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.3	2.2	2.0
Norfolk-Portsmouth	1.2	1.6	1.6	1.4	2.3	2.2	1.2	1.6	1.8	1.6	2.7	2.5
Richmond	.5	.9	1.0	.9	2.1	1.7	.4	.6	.7	.7	1.7	1.4
Roanoke	.4	.6	.6	.6	1.2	1.2	.8	1.3	1.4	1.3	3.0	2.9
Washington:												
Seattle	12.0	17.7	16.1	11.9	16.9	15.9	3.8	5.4	4.9	3.5	5.3	5.1
Spokane	2.5	3.1	3.6	4.0	4.5	4.0	4.5	5.7	6.3	7.1	11.0	6.7
Tacoma	2.8	3.4	3.3	2.9	4.1	3.6	4.6	5.8	5.8	5.3	7.5	6.5
West Virginia:												
Charleston	1.4	1.7	2.2	2.1	2.7	2.4	2.3	2.9	3.7	3.7	4.5	4.0
Huntington-Ashland	1.8	2.3	2.5	3.1	3.9	3.5	3.2	4.2	4.8	6.0	7.4	6.5
Wheeling	1.7	1.7	2.5	2.6	3.8	3.8	4.2	4.3	6.1	6.9	9.1	8.5
Wisconsin:												
Kenosha	.7	1.0	.4	.7	1.8	.7	2.6	3.2	1.2	2.6	7.0	2.2
Madison	.7	.8	.9	.8	1.0	.8	1.3	1.5	1.9	1.8	2.4	1.9
Milwaukee	5.4	7.8	8.9	8.8	15.3	8.7	1.3	2.0	2.4	2.4	4.1	2.4
Racine	.8	.9	.8	1.1	1.9	1.3	2.1	2.4	2.3	3.2	5.6	3.8

[1] Not available.
[2] Sugarcane workers are not included.

NOTE: Comparability between years for a given area or for the same year among areas is affected by changes or differences in statutory or administrative factors.

SOURCE: State employment security agencies cooperating with the U.S. Department of Labor.

Table E–1. Estimates and Projections of the Total Population, by Age, 1950 to 1980 [1]

[Numbers in thousands]

Age	Estimates			Projections			Change, 1950–60		Change, 1960–70		Change, 1970–80	
	1950	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	152,271	180,684	194,583	208,996	225,870	245,313	28,413	18.7	28,312	15.7	36,317	17.4
Under 14 years	38,833	53,349	56,322	59,305	63,824	71,405	14,516	37.4	5,956	11.2	12,100	20.4
Under 5 years	16,410	20,364	20,434	22,013	25,192	28,345	3,954	24.1	1,649	8.1	6,332	28.8
5 to 13 years	22,423	32,985	35,888	37,292	38,632	43,060	10,562	47.1	4,307	13.1	5,768	15.5
14 years and over	113,438	127,335	138,261	149,691	162,046	173,908	13,897	12.2	22,356	17.6	24,217	16.2
14 to 24 years	24,519	27,333	34,306	40,045	43,858	45,788	2,814	11.5	12,712	46.5	5,743	14.3
14 to 19 years	12,839	16,217	20,639	22,941	24,801	25,164	3,378	26.3	6,724	41.5	2,223	9.7
20 to 24 years	11,680	11,116	13,667	17,104	19,057	20,624	−564	−4.8	5,988	53.9	3,520	20.6
25 to 44 years	45,673	47,134	46,789	48,216	53,597	61,784	1,461	3.2	1,082	2.3	13,568	28.1
25 to 34 years	24,036	22,911	22,358	25,220	31,139	36,517	−1,125	−4.7	2,309	10.1	11,297	44.8
35 to 44 years	21,637	24,223	24,431	22,996	22,458	25,267	2,586	12.0	−1,227	−5.1	2,271	9.9
45 to 64 years	30,849	36,208	39,011	41,860	43,419	43,250	5,359	17.4	5,652	15.6	1,390	3.3
45 to 54 years	17,453	20,581	22,045	23,360	23,574	22,194	3,128	17.9	2,779	13.5	−1,166	−5.0
55 to 64 years	13,396	15,627	16,966	18,500	19,845	21,056	2,231	16.7	2,873	18.4	2,556	13.8
65 years and over	12,397	16,659	18,156	19,570	21,172	23,086	4,262	34.4	2,911	17.5	3,516	18.0

[1] Data relate to July 1 and include the Armed Forces abroad. Alaska and Hawaii are also included beginning 1960.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P–25: for 1950 data, No. 310; for 1960 and 1965 data, No. 312; for other years, No. 286, Series B.

Table E–2. Population, Total Labor Force, and Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age, 1960 to 1980 [1]

Sex and age	Total population, July 1 (thousands)					Total labor force, annual averages (thousands)					Labor force participation rates, annual averages (percent)				
	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960 [1]	1965	1970	1975	1980	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
BOTH SEXES															
14 years and over	127,327	138,261	149,691	162,046	173,908	73,081	78,357	85,999	93,646	101,408	57.4	56.7	57.5	57.8	58.3
MALE															
14 years and over	62,216	67,206	72,539	78,408	84,123	49,563	51,705	55,844	60,281	64,981	79.7	76.9	77.0	76.9	77.2
14 to 19 years	8,194	10,478	11,641	12,583	12,809	3,792	4,591	5,164	5,589	5,744	46.3	43.8	44.4	44.4	44.8
14 and 15 years	2,796	3,598	4,054	4,281	4,299	630	759	884	925	920	22.5	21.1	21.8	21.6	21.4
16 and 17 years	2,880	3,578	3,903	4,188	4,196	1,322	1,577	1,690	1,792	1,796	45.9	44.1	43.3	42.8	42.8
18 and 19 years	2,518	3,302	3,684	4,114	4,314	1,840	2,254	2,590	2,872	3,028	73.1	68.3	70.3	69.8	70.2
20 to 24 years	5,553	6,872	8,621	9,609	10,394	4,939	5,926	7,466	8,331	9,064	88.9	86.2	86.6	86.7	87.2
25 to 34 years	11,347	11,091	12,540	15,557	18,285	10,940	10,653	12,063	14,966	17,590	96.4	96.0	96.2	96.2	96.2
35 to 44 years	11,878	11,962	11,303	11,068	12,496	11,454	11,504	10,930	10,703	12,084	96.4	96.2	96.7	96.7	96.7
45 to 54 years	10,148	10,740	11,289	11,379	10,757	9,568	10,131	10,725	10,810	10,219	94.3	94.3	95.0	95.0	95.0
55 to 64 years	7,564	8,131	8,759	9,287	9,776	6,445	6,768	7,388	7,795	8,184	85.2	83.2	84.3	83.9	83.7
55 to 59 years	4,144	4,421	4,794	4,990	5,296	3,727	3,929	4,339	4,516	4,793	89.9	88.9	90.5	90.5	90.5
60 to 64 years	3,420	3,710	3,965	4,297	4,480	2,718	2,839	3,049	3,279	3,391	79.5	76.5	76.9	76.3	75.7
65 years and over	7,530	7,932	8,385	8,923	9,606	2,425	2,131	2,108	2,087	2,096	32.2	26.9	25.1	23.4	21.8
65 to 69 years	2,941	2,871	3,137	3,362	3,651	1,348	1,209	1,142	1,136	1,143	45.8	42.1	36.4	33.8	31.3
70 years and over	4,590	5,061	5,248	5,561	5,955	1,077	922	966	951	953	23.5	18.2	18.4	17.1	16.0
FEMALE															
14 years and over	65,111	71,055	77,152	83,638	89,785	23,518	26,653	30,155	33,365	36,427	36.1	37.5	39.1	39.9	40.6
14 to 19 years	7,989	10,158	11,299	12,219	12,357	2,408	2,940	3,406	3,739	3,832	30.1	28.9	30.1	30.6	31.0
14 and 15 years	2,714	3,477	3,924	4,138	4,136	347	421	498	538	546	12.8	12.1	12.7	13.0	13.2
16 and 17 years	2,803	3,464	3,794	4,073	4,045	801	954	1,096	1,173	1,165	28.6	27.5	28.9	28.8	28.8
18 and 19 years	2,472	3,217	3,581	4,008	4,176	1,260	1,565	1,812	2,028	2,121	51.0	48.6	50.6	50.6	50.8
20 to 24 years	5,547	6,796	8,483	9,446	10,230	2,558	3,375	4,267	4,865	5,380	46.1	49.7	50.3	51.5	52.6
25 to 34 years	11,605	11,267	12,680	15,582	18,232	4,159	4,336	4,894	6,124	7,347	35.8	38.5	38.6	39.3	40.3
35 to 44 years	12,348	12,470	11,694	11,391	12,771	5,325	5,724	5,555	5,582	6,386	43.1	45.9	47.5	49.0	50.0
45 to 54 years	10,438	11,304	12,071	12,195	11,437	5,150	5,714	6,675	7,024	6,805	49.3	50.5	55.3	57.6	59.5
55 to 64 years	8,070	8,835	9,741	10,558	11,279	2,964	3,587	4,267	4,826	5,337	36.7	40.6	43.8	45.7	47.3
55 to 59 years	4,321	4,736	5,252	5,577	5,983	1,803	2,209	2,705	3,023	3,362	41.7	46.6	51.5	54.2	56.2
60 to 64 years	3,749	4,099	4,489	4,981	5,296	1,161	1,378	1,562	1,803	1,975	31.0	33.6	34.8	36.2	37.3
65 years and over	9,115	10,225	11,186	12,248	13,481	954	976	1,091	1,205	1,340	10.5	9.5	9.8	9.8	9.9
65 to 69 years	3,347	3,427	3,755	4,122	4,580	579	585	653	717	797	17.3	17.1	17.4	17.4	17.4
70 years and over	5,768	6,798	7,431	8,126	8,901	375	391	438	488	543	6.5	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.1

[1] These data differ from the figures published in Section A because they are based on different population estimates.

SOURCE: Population data from the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P–25: for 1960, No. 241; for 1965, unpublished estimates; for 1970–80, No. 286, Series B. (There are some slight differences between these population data for 1960 and 1965 and those shown in table E–1.) All other data from the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table E–3. Changes in the Total Labor Force, by Sex and Age, 1950 to 1980

[Numbers in thousands]

Sex and age	Actual		Projected		Change, 1950–60		Change, 1960–70		Change, 1970–80	
	1950	1960	1970	1980	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Both Sexes										
14 years and over	64,749	73,081	85,999	101,408	8,332	12.9	12,918	17.7	15,409	17.9
14 to 24 years	13,331	13,697	20,303	24,020	366	2.7	6,606	48.2	3,717	18.3
25 to 44 years	29,263	31,878	33,442	43,407	2,615	8.9	1,564	4.9	9,965	29.8
25 to 34 years	15,145	15,099	16,957	24,937	−46	−.3	1,858	12.3	7,980	47.1
35 to 44 years	14,118	16,779	16,485	18,470	2,661	18.8	−294	−1.8	1,985	12.0
45 years and over	22,156	27,506	32,254	33,981	5,350	24.1	4,748	17.3	1,727	5.4
45 to 64 years	19,119	24,127	29,055	30,545	5,008	26.2	4,928	20.4	1,490	5.1
65 years and over	3,037	3,379	3,199	3,436	342	11.3	−180	−5.3	237	7.4
Male										
14 years and over	46,069	49,563	55,844	64,981	3,494	7.6	6,281	12.7	9,137	16.4
14 to 24 years	8,668	8,731	12,630	14,808	63	.7	3,899	44.7	2,178	17.2
25 to 44 years	20,996	22,394	22,993	29,674	1,398	6.7	599	2.7	6,681	29.1
25 to 34 years	11,044	10,940	12,063	17,590	−104	−.9	1,123	10.3	5,527	45.8
35 to 44 years	9,952	11,454	10,930	12,084	1,502	15.1	−524	−4.6	1,154	10.6
45 years and over	16,405	18,438	20,221	20,499	2,033	12.4	1,783	9.7	278	1.4
45 to 64 years	13,952	16,013	18,113	18,403	2,061	14.8	2,100	13.1	290	1.6
65 years and over	2,453	2,425	2,108	2,096	−28	−1.1	−317	−13.1	−12	−.6
Female										
14 years and over	18,680	23,518	30,155	36,427	4,838	25.9	6,637	28.2	6,272	20.8
14 to 24 years	4,663	4,966	7,673	9,212	303	6.5	2,707	54.5	1,539	20.1
25 to 44 years	8,267	9,484	10,449	13,733	1,217	14.7	965	10.2	3,284	31.4
25 to 34 years	4,101	4,159	4,894	7,347	58	1.4	735	17.7	2,453	50.1
35 to 44 years	4,166	5,325	5,555	6,386	1,159	27.8	230	4.3	831	15.0
45 years and over	5,751	9,068	12,033	13,482	3,317	57.7	2,965	32.7	1,449	12.0
45 to 64 years	5,167	8,114	10,942	12,142	2,947	57.0	2,828	34.9	1,200	11.0
65 years and over	584	954	1,091	1,340	370	63.4	137	14.4	249	22.8

Table E–4. Percent Distribution of the Total Labor Force, by Sex and Age, 1950 to 1980

Sex and age	1950	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980
Both Sexes						
14 years and over	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
14 to 24 years	20.6	18.7	21.5	23.6	24.1	23.7
25 to 44 years	45.2	43.6	41.1	38.9	39.9	42.8
45 years and over	34.2	37.6	37.4	37.5	36.0	33.5
45 to 64 years	29.5	33.0	33.4	33.8	32.5	30.1
65 years and over	4.7	4.6	4.0	3.7	3.5	3.4
Male						
14 years and over	71.2	67.8	66.0	64.9	64.4	64.1
14 to 24 years	13.4	11.9	13.4	14.7	14.9	14.6
25 to 44 years	32.4	30.6	28.3	26.7	27.4	29.3
45 years and over	25.3	25.2	24.3	23.5	22.1	20.2
45 to 64 years	21.5	21.9	21.6	21.1	19.9	18.1
65 years and over	3.8	3.3	2.7	2.5	2.2	2.1
Female						
14 years and over	28.8	32.2	34.0	35.1	35.6	35.9
14 to 24 years	7.2	6.8	8.1	8.9	9.2	9.1
25 to 44 years	12.8	13.0	12.8	12.2	12.5	13.5
45 years and over	8.9	12.4	13.1	14.0	13.9	13.3
45 to 64 years	8.0	11.1	11.9	12.7	12.7	12.0
65 years and over	.9	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3

Table E–5. Actual and Projected Employment, by Industry Division, 1960 to 1970

[Numbers in thousands]

Industry division	Actual, 1960		Actual, 1965		Projected, 1970 [1]		Change, 1960–65		Change, 1965–70	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total employment [2]	59,926	100.0	65,017	100.0	72,823	100.0	5,091	8.5	7,806	12.0
Agriculture	5,723	9.6	4,585	7.1	4,080	5.6	−1,138	−19.9	−505	−11.0
Nonagricultural industries	54,203	90.4	[3] 60,432	92.9	68,743	94.4	6,229	11.5	8,311	13.8
Goods-producing industries	20,393	34.0	21,823	33.6	23,168	31.8	1,430	7.0	1,345	6.2
Mining	712	1.2	628	1.0	586	.8	−84	−11.8	−42	−6.7
Contract construction	2,885	4.8	3,211	4.9	3,700	5.1	326	11.3	489	15.2
Manufacturing	16,796	28.0	17,984	27.7	18,882	25.9	1,188	7.1	898	5.0
Service-producing industries	33,809	56.4	38,608	59.4	45,575	62.6	4,799	14.2	6,967	18.0
Transportation and public utilities	4,004	6.7	4,031	6.2	4,106	5.6	27	.7	75	1.9
Transportation	2,549	4.3	2,530	3.9	2,600	3.6	−19	−.7	70	2.8
Communication	840	1.4	881	1.4	861	1.2	41	4.9	−20	−2.3
Electric, gas, and sanitary services	615	1.0	620	1.0	645	.9	5	.8	25	4.0
Wholesale and retail trade	11,391	19.0	12,585	19.4	14,195	19.5	1,194	10.5	1,610	12.8
Finance, insurance, real estate	2,669	4.5	3,043	4.7	3,494	4.8	374	14.0	451	14.8
Service and miscellaneous	7,392	12.3	8,903	13.7	11,097	15.2	1,511	20.4	2,194	24.6
Government	8,353	13.9	10,046	15.5	12,683	17.4	1,693	20.3	2,637	26.2
Federal [4]	2,270	3.8	2,379	3.7	2,524	3.5	109	4.8	145	6.1
State and local	6,083	10.2	7,667	11.8	10,159	14.0	1,584	26.0	2,492	32.5

[1] Based on an assumption of 3 percent unemployment.
[2] Represents agricultural employment from the monthly household survey of the labor force and nonagricultural wage and salary employment from the establishment survey. Nonfarm self-employed, unpaid family workers, and domestics are not included.
[3] Preliminary.
[4] Data relate to civilian employment only, excluding the Central Intelligence and National Security Agencies.

Table E–6. Actual and Projected Employment, by Major Occupation Group, 1960 to 1975

Major occupation group	Actual				Projected [1]				Change, 1960–65		Change, 1965–75	
	1960		1965		1970		1975					
	Number (thousands)	Percent distribution	Number (thousands)	Percent distribution	Number (millions)	Percent distribution	Number (millions)	Percent distribution	Number (millions)	Percent [2]	Number (millions)	Percent [2]
Total employment [3]	66,681	100.0	72,179	100.0	81.2	100.0	88.7	100.0	5.5	8.2	16.5	22.9
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	7,475	11.2	8,883	12.3	11.1	13.7	13.2	14.9	1.4	18.8	4.3	48.6
Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm	7,067	10.6	7,340	10.2	8.4	10.3	9.2	10.4	.3	3.9	1.9	25.3
Clerical and kindred workers	9,783	14.7	11,166	15.5	13.2	16.3	14.6	16.5	1.4	14.1	3.4	30.8
Sales workers	4,401	6.6	4,715	6.5	5.3	6.5	5.8	6.5	.3	7.1	1.1	23.0
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	8,560	12.8	9,221	12.8	10.4	12.8	11.4	12.8	.7	7.7	2.2	23.6
Operatives and kindred workers	11,986	18.0	13,390	18.6	14.2	17.5	14.8	16.7	1.4	11.7	1.4	10.5
Service workers, including private household	8,349	12.5	9,342	12.9	11.0	13.5	12.5	14.1	1.0	11.9	3.2	33.8
Laborers, except farm and mine	3,665	5.5	3,855	5.3	3.7	4.6	3.7	4.2	.2	5.2	−.2	[4] −4.0
Farmers and farm managers, laborers, and foremen	5,395	8.1	4,265	5.9	3.9	4.8	3.5	3.9	−1.1	−20.9	−.8	−17.9

[1] Based on an assumption of 3 percent unemployment.
[2] Based on data in thousands where available.
[3] Represents employment as covered by the monthly household survey of the labor force. Differs from the industry projections shown in table E–5 in that nonagricultural self-employed, unpaid family workers and domestics are included.
[4] Employment is projected at about the level of the past decade; however, because 1965 employment was unusually high, reflecting an abnormally sharp increase in manufacturing, the projected percent change from 1965 indicates an apparent decline.

Table E–7. Revised Projected Educational Attainment of the Civilian Labor Force 25 Years Old and Over, by Sex and Age, 1975

[Numbers in thousands]

Years of school completed and sex	Total, 25 years and over	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
BOTH SEXES						
Total: Number	69,857	20,325	15,879	17,745	12,616	3,292
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 4 years high school	39.5	29.2	37.1	43.0	50.2	55.0
4 years high school or more	60.5	70.8	62.9	57.0	49.8	45.0
Elementary: Less than 5 years [1]	2.8	1.1	2.4	3.5	4.3	5.4
5 to 7 years	7.0	3.3	6.0	8.2	10.8	13.5
8 years	9.0	3.8	7.3	10.2	15.1	19.1
High school: 1 to 3 years	20.8	21.0	21.4	21.1	20.0	16.9
4 years	33.3	36.4	33.9	34.3	29.8	18.4
College: 1 to 3 years	11.6	13.3	11.7	10.6	10.0	12.9
4 years or more	15.6	21.1	17.3	12.0	9.9	13.7
Median years of school completed	12.3	12.6	12.4	12.2	12.0	11.1
MALE						
Total: Number	45,109	14,208	10,301	10,723	7,790	2,087
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 4 years high school	41.3	30.4	38.7	45.9	54.1	55.8
4 years high school or more	58.7	69.6	61.3	54.1	45.9	44.2
Elementary: Less than 5 years [1]	3.2	1.3	2.9	4.1	5.2	5.7
5 to 7 years	7.6	3.7	6.8	9.1	12.2	13.9
8 years	9.4	4.2	7.9	11.0	16.1	19.5
High school: 1 to 3 years	21.0	21.3	21.0	21.7	20.6	16.7
4 years	29.1	32.6	29.0	29.3	26.3	16.3
College: 1 to 3 years	11.7	13.3	11.9	10.5	9.3	13.6
4 years or more	18.0	23.7	20.4	14.3	10.3	14 3
Median years of school completed	12.3	12.6	12.4	12.1	11.4	11.0
FEMALE						
Total: Number	24,748	6,117	5,578	7,022	4,826	1,205
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 4 years high school	36.4	26.4	34.3	38.6	44.0	53.5
4 years high school or more	63.6	73.6	65.7	61.4	56.0	46.5
Elementary: Less than 5 years [1]	2,0	0.7	1.3	2.5	2.9	5.1
5 to 7 years	5.9	2.5	4.6	6.9	8.6	12.8
8 years	8.1	2.9	6.2	9.0	13.3	18.4
High school: 1 to 3 years	20.3	20.4	22.2	20.2	19.1	17.3
4 years	40.8	45.2	42.7	42.1	35.6	22.2
College: 1 to 3 years	11.6	13.4	11.3	10.8	11.1	11.7
4 years or more	11.2	15.0	11.6	8.6	9.4	12.6
Median years of school completed	12.3	12.5	12.4	12.3	12.2	11.4

[1] Includes persons with no formal education.

SOURCE: Prepared by the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, consistent with data published by the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census in Current Population Reports, Series P–25, No. 305, and with data from the decennial censuses and monthly household surveys of the labor force.

Table F–1. Occupations for Which Institutional and On-the-Job Training Projects Were Approved Under the Manpower Development and Training Act, 1965

Occupation	Trainees approved	
	Number	Percent distribution
Institutional training	154,251	
Single occupation projects [1]	107,770	100.0
Professional and technical	14,164	13.7
Licensed practical nurse	4,850	4.5
Clerical and sales	22,308	20.7
General office clerk	1,617	1.5
Key punch operator	1,401	1.3
Stenographer	6,574	6.1
Clerk-typist	4,850	4.5
Salesperson, general	1,832	1.7
Service	15,411	14.3
Cook, all types	2,263	2.1
Waiter, waitress	1,078	1.0
Nurse aide, orderly	6,897	6.4
Agricultural	4,850	4.5
Skilled	30,499	28.3
Welder	5,604	5.2
Mechanic, auto, bus, other	4,742	4.4
Other automotive repairman	3,018	2.8
Semiskilled	19,399	18.0
Machine operator	7,005	6.5
Subassembly installer	1,832	1.7
Pre-apprentice and other	539	.5
Multioccupation projects [2]	46,481	
On-the-job training	61,017	
Single occupation projects [1]	48,865	100.0
Professional and technical	3,860	7.9
Manager, service station	1,080	2.2
Clerical and sales	1,417	2.9
Service	10,164	20.8
Barber	3,000	6.1
Nurse aide, orderly	1,524	3.1
Agricultural	1,857	3.8
Skilled	10,408	21.3
Sewer, hand	502	1.0
Stitcher, utility	367	.8
Carpenter	441	.9
Mechanic and repairman, motor vehicles	455	.9
Semiskilled	19,399	39.7
Stitcher, machine	367	.8
Machine operator, general	780	1.6
Electrical assembler, aircraft	458	.9
Aircraft mechanic helper	489	1.0
Tool-and-die maker apprentice	458	.9
Bricklayer apprentice	576	1.2
Pre-apprentice and other	1,759	3.6
Multioccupation projects	9,930	
CAUSE (counselor aide)	2,222	

[1] Occupational distribution based on reports for about 100,000 of the approved trainees in institutional single occupation projects, and about 29,000 approved trainees in on-the-job single occupation projects.

[2] Includes 4,566 individual referrals to training.

NOTE: Only the largest single occupations, in terms of trainees, are shown for each occupation group.

Table F–2. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in Institutional Projects Under the Manpower Development and Training Act, by Sex, 1965

Characteristic	Total trainees enrolled		Male		Female	
	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution	Number	Percent distribution
Total	102,989	100.0	61,776	100.0	41,213	100.0
Family status:						
Head of family or household	52,443	51.4	35,699	58.3	16,744	41.0
Other	49,629	48.6	25,553	41.7	24,076	59.0
Not reported	917		524		393	
Age:						
Under 19 years	18,927	18.4	11,546	18.7	7,381	17.9
19 to 21 years	24,301	23.6	15,002	24.3	9,299	22.6
22 to 34 years	34,372	33.4	21,729	35.2	12,643	30.7
35 to 44 years	15,097	14.7	7,928	12.8	7,171	17.4
45 years and over	10,290	10.0	5,571	9.0	4,719	11.5
Education:						
Under 8 years	7,248	7.1	5,949	9.7	1,299	3.2
8 years	10,071	9.9	7,720	12.6	2,351	5.8
9 to 11 years	34,593	33.9	22,092	36.1	12,501	30.6
12 years	43,992	43.1	22,567	36.9	21,425	52.5
Over 12 years	6,058	5.9	2,826	4.6	3,232	7.9
Not reported	1,027		622		405	
Years of gainful employment:						
Under 3 years	43,348	42.8	22,111	36.4	21,237	52.3
3 to 9 years	35,367	34.9	21,627	35.6	13,740	33.9
10 years or more	22,661	22.4	17,063	28.1	5,598	13.8
Not reported	1,613		975		638	
Employment status prior to enrollment:						
Unemployed:						
Under 5 weeks	28,242	28.1	19,332	32.1	8,910	22.2
5 to 14 weeks	20,186	20.1	13,663	22.7	6,523	16.2
15 to 26 weeks	11,416	11.4	7,248	12.0	4,168	10.4
27 to 52 weeks	9,552	9.5	5,380	8.9	4,172	10.4
Over 52 weeks	17,058	17.0	6,980	11.6	10,078	25.1
Other [1]	13,910	13.8	7,548	12.5	6,362	15.8
Not reported	2,625		1,625		1,000	
Color:						
White	62,727	66.4	40,476	71.1	22,251	59.2
Nonwhite	31,765	33.6	16,452	28.9	15,313	40.7
Not obtained	8,497		4,848		3,649	

[1] Includes underemployed, family farm workers, and reentrants to the labor force.

Table F–3. Characteristics of Trainees Enrolled in On-the-Job Projects Under the Manpower Development and Training Act, by Sex, 1965

Characteristic	Total trainees enrolled	Male	Female
Total: Number	10,103	7,640	2,463
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Family status:			
Head of family or household	48.5	57.0	22.2
Other	51.5	43.0	77.8
Age:			
Under 19 years	14.8	15.5	12.7
19 to 21 years	24.4	26.9	16.7
22 to 34 years	38.8	39.9	35.2
35 to 44 years	12.1	9.8	19.2
45 years and over	9.9	7.9	16.2
Education:			
Under 8 years	4.2	4.0	4.9
8 years	7.9	7.1	10.3
9 to 11 years	26.2	23.6	34.0
12 years	52.1	55.2	42.7
Over 12 years	9.6	10.1	8.2
Years of gainful employment:			
Under 3 years	40.0	38.1	45.8
3 to 9 years	37.0	38.0	33.8
10 years or more	23.0	23.9	20.4
Employment status prior to enrollment:			
Unemployed:			
Under 5 weeks	25.7	28.2	17.8
5 to 14 weeks	16.5	18.6	10.3
15 to 26 weeks	7.8	8.0	7.2
27 to 52 weeks	5.6	5.0	7.4
Over 52 weeks	7.6	4.4	17.3
Other [1]	36.8	35.8	40.0
Color:			
White	79.3	80.8	74.6
Nonwhite	20.7	19.2	25.4

[1] Includes underemployed, family farm workers, and reentrants to the labor force.

Table F–4. Neighborhood Youth Corps Approved Projects and Enrollees Covered by Signed Agreements, by State, 1965

State	Projects approved	Enrollees approved					Federal share of project cost
		Total	Type of project		Project location [1]		
			In school	Out of school	Urban counties	Rural counties	
Total	[2] 1,446	513,334	367,168	146,166	380,652	91,631	[2] $287,837,473
Alabama	29	6,128	5,240	888	2,390	3,738	3,504,365
Alaska	6	1,315	555	760	1,065	250	1,555,592
Arizona	16	17,246	10,533	6,713	15,959	1,287	9,354,085
Arkansas	30	21,596	19,950	1,646	15,370	2,574	10,699,825
California	65	42,147	30,696	11,451	39,547	2,600	27,045,619
Colorado	26	9,043	5,589	3,454	8,118	0	4,076,993
Connecticut	30	5,328	3,701	1,627	5,202	126	3,241,975
Delaware	4	733	733	0	733	0	464,922
District of Columbia	5	8,267	6,308	1,959	8,267	0	5,090,722
Florida	26	16,178	11,653	4,525	15,248	369	10,273,934
Georgia	39	14,820	12,496	2,324	5,531	4,920	7,402,634
Hawaii	6	3,724	3,409	315	(1)	(1)	1,346,094
Idaho	15	763	694	69	371	339	383,866
Illinois	8	22,047	13,600	8,447	22,047	0	8,923,876
Indiana	11	6,482	4,293	2,189	6,444	38	4,561,265
Iowa	9	1,181	706	475	1,121	60	692,971
Kansas	16	2,965	2,621	344	2,636	129	1,883,768
Kentucky	55	16,869	15,582	1,287	4,400	12,469	8,701,262
Louisiana	5	5,369	3,806	1,563	3,785	0	2,837,419
Maine	36	2,708	1,721	987	1,361	290	1,551,410
Maryland	10	3,692	2,106	1,586	1,259	963	2,591,297
Massachusetts	40	14,146	9,279	4,867	14,146	0	6,596,742
Michigan	20	14,124	8,617	5,507	12,082	0	7,787,061
Minnesota	17	7,115	2,883	4,232	6,227	684	4,416,552
Mississippi	7	6,740	5,159	1,581	2,900	3,840	4,486,558
Missouri	71	22,586	15,895	6,691	18,582	3,552	12,063,020
Montana	11	963	698	265	310	553	624,130
Nebraska	10	1,753	1,572	181	1,227	526	1,114,345
Nevada	8	1,452	797	655	1,250	0	795,616
New Hampshire	7	678	278	400	313	105	695,867
New Jersey	78	13,673	7,757	5,916	13,164	414	9,440,536
New Mexico	28	4,495	3,605	890	3,149	1,346	2,333,392
New York	94	35,789	21,423	14,366	29,465	4,568	21,354,127
North Carolina	27	9,918	7,164	2,754	3,821	6,097	5,832,412
North Dakota	11	905	825	80	331	574	386,320
Ohio	49	20,445	15,656	4,789	19,203	1,242	12,747,331
Oklahoma	45	22,997	19,817	3,180	7,797	12,050	10,750,759
Oregon	45	5,251	4,682	569	3,923	1,139	2,587,491
Pennsylvania	71	21,972	15,152	6,820	19,245	1,061	16,237,165
Puerto Rico	3	10,500	2,338	8,162	(1)	(1)	4,171,999
Rhode Island	24	6,785	5,863	922	6,785	0	2,819,751
South Carolina	7	3,623	3,623	0	0	2,623	1,228,443
South Dakota	9	1,061	779	282	78	983	540,620
Tennessee	27	16,074	11,306	4,765	12,384	3,690	8,522,814
Texas	158	28,160	23,308	4,852	21,539	6,271	14,380,918
Utah	38	3,154	2,224	930	1,322	1,792	2,101,220
Vermont	4	974	889	85	934	40	427,977
Virginia	11	3,438	2,808	630	561	2,749	2,609,778
Virgin Islands	2	350	100	250	(1)	(1)	277,096
Washington	63	8,504	6,178	2,326	6,880	646	5,234,111
West Virginia	31	11,466	8,367	3,099	6,666	4,800	5,121,804
Wisconsin	6	5,113	1,607	3,506	5,010	103	3,616,853
Wyoming	5	529	524	5	498	31	300,821

[1] Enrollees approved for projects that incorporate a mix of urban and rural counties, and those in areas for which no urban-rural classification is available, are included in the total column only.

[2] Totals include one nationwide developmental project, with no enrollees, at a Federal cost of $50,000.

Table F–5. Selected Characteristics of Job Corps Enrollees, December 1965

Item	Percent distribution
Total enrollees (number)	16,986
NUMBER IN HOUSEHOLD	
Total	100.0
1 person	1.4
2 persons	6.0
3 persons	13.0
4 persons	15.2
5 persons	14.8
6 persons	13.0
7 persons	10.3
8 persons	7.9
9 persons or more	15.1
Not reported	3.2
BEHAVIOR PATTERN PRIOR TO ENROLLMENT	
Total	100.0
No offense record	61.4
Police record of minor offense	16.1
Record of truancy or school expulsion	10.9
History of anti-social behavior or single incident of serious offense	10.3
Record unavailable for this investigation	1.3
ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS	*Percent of group*
Substandard housing	55.9
Parent seriously ill	33.8
Depressed living area	27.7
Primary family wage earner unemployed	55.3
Wasteful or harmful spare time activity	52.0
Family receives financial assistance	36.5
Overcrowded living facilities	44.7
Deficient or disruptive home environment (noise, drunkenness)	51.9
Both parents have less than 8th grade education	46.8
Parents underemployed or hold unskilled jobs	62.6
Family wage earners hold seasonal or migratory jobs	11.9
Moved frequently in same area	20.5
Asked to leave school, or dropped out of school without being followed up	68.2
Rejected by Selective Service (men)	27.9
Unwed mother	9.5

Item	Percent distribution
YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED	
Total	100.0
Elementary school	42.9
Less than 5 years	1.7
5 years	1.3
6 years	4.4
7 years	11.7
8 years	23.8
High school or more	57.1
9 years	25.4
10 years	17.9
11 years	6.9
12 years	6.8
More than 12 years	.1
GRADE EQUIVALENT OF READING ACHIEVEMENT [Male enrollees at entrance]	
Total	100.0
Below 3d grade	20.3
3d and 4th grades	19.6
5th grade	19.8
6th grade	9.5
7th grade	9.7
8th grade	9.0
9th grade or more	11.5
Not reported	.6
MONTHS OUT OF SCHOOL	
Total	100.0
Less than 3 months	1.4
3 months	11.3
4 to 6 months	16.3
7 to 12 months	22.2
13 to 24 months	22.7
25 months or more	25.4
Not reported	.7
EMPLOYMENT AND MARITAL STATUS	
Total	100.0
Employed	10.6
Not employed: Looked for work	77.6
Did not look for work	8.0
Not reported	3.7
Single	97.4
Married	1.3
Widowed, divorced, separated	.7
Not reported	.6

Table F–6. Registered Apprentices in Selected Occupations, 1964

Occupation	Active at beginning of year	Apprentice actions during year			Active at end of year
		New registrations [1]	Completions	Cancellations [2]	
Total	163,318	59,960	25,744	27,001	170,533
Construction trades	106,913	38,556	16,286	19,347	109,836
Brick, stone, and tile setters	8,710	2,576	1,369	1,692	8,225
Carpenters	23,118	10,321	2,882	6,255	24,302
Cement masons	1,637	563	222	276	1,702
Electricians	20,293	6,647	3,887	2,526	20,527
Glaziers	1,069	366	266	182	987
Lathers	2,093	641	240	502	1,992
Painters	6,031	3,024	770	1,711	6,574
Plasterers	1,428	491	267	223	1,429
Plumbers, pipefitters	20,764	5,782	3,101	1,697	21,748
Roofers	2,619	1,390	282	1,500	2,227
Sheet-metal workers	10,052	3,278	1,742	1,340	10,248
Structural iron workers	4,820	1,831	732	755	5,164
Others	4,279	1,646	526	688	4,711
Metalworking trades	24,831	10,704	3,923	3,652	27,960
Automotive mechanics	3,455	1,486	517	825	3,599
Automobile body repairmen	1,036	493	135	292	1,102
Boilermakers	663	204	52	94	721
Engravers	50	20	4	3	63
Machinists	8,402	3,266	1,309	1,129	9,230
Molders and coremakers	660	305	126	128	711
Pattern makers	717	308	131	71	823
Toolmakers, diemakers	8,228	4,031	1,489	987	9,783
Others	1,620	591	160	123	1,928
Printing trades	12,129	2,400	2,267	845	11,417
Bookbinders	641	262	235	67	601
Compositors	4,904	747	666	248	4,737
Electrotypers, stereotypers	789	57	113	84	649
Lithographers	1,517	525	538	91	1,413
Mailers	185	45	39	24	167
Photoengravers	602	71	102	29	542
Pressmen	3,331	653	551	277	3,156
Others	160	40	23	25	152
Miscellaneous trades, n.e.c.	19,445	8,300	3,268	3,157	21,320

[1] Includes reinstatements.

[2] Includes layoffs, discharges, out-of-State transfers, suspensions for military service, and voluntary "quits."

Table G–1. Indexes of Output [1] per Man-Hour and Related Data for the Total Private Economy: Annual Averages, 1947–65

[1957–59=100]

Item	1965 [2]	1964	1963	1962	1961	1960	1959	1958	1957	1956	1955	1954	1953	1952	1951	1950	1949	1948	1947
Man-hour estimates based primarily on establishment data [3]																			
Output per Man-Hour																			
Total	125.3	121.9	117.7	113.7	108.7	105.1	103.4	99.7	96.9	94.1	94.0	90.0	88.0	84.5	82.9	80.6	74.4	72.1	69.2
Agriculture	143.6	133.8	132.6	121.4	119.0	110.3	104.7	103.0	93.3	88.3	84.8	84.3	80.2	70.9	65.4	65.3	57.4	58.9	50.7
Nonagricultural industries	122.4	119.5	115.4	112.3	107.4	104.4	103.1	99.6	97.2	95.1	95.7	91.7	89.7	87.2	86.3	84.6	79.5	76.5	74.3
Hours per Unit of Output																			
Total	79.8	82.0	85.0	87.9	92.0	95.1	96.7	100.3	103.2	106.3	106.4	111.1	113.7	118.4	120.7	124.1	134.4	138.7	144.5
Agriculture	69.6	74.7	75.4	82.4	84.0	90.6	95.5	97.1	107.1	113.2	117.9	118.7	124.7	141.0	153.0	153.0	174.1	169.7	197.1
Nonagricultural industries	81.7	83.7	86.6	89.0	93.1	95.8	97.0	100.4	102.8	105.2	104.5	109.0	111.5	114.7	115.9	118.2	125.9	130.7	134.6
Output																			
Total	134.1	126.9	120.6	116.0	108.7	106.7	104.1	97.3	98.6	97.2	95.4	87.9	89.1	84.8	82.8	77.9	70.6	70.8	67.6
Agriculture	112.6	107.7	110.6	106.8	107.2	105.8	101.9	100.5	98.1	100.5	101.0	98.6	96.6	91.8	88.9	93.7	88.9	91.8	82.1
Nonagricultural industries	135.2	127.9	121.1	116.5	108.7	106.7	104.2	97.1	98.6	97.0	95.1	87.4	88.7	84.5	82.4	77.0	69.6	69.7	66.8
Employment																			
Total	108.1	105.5	103.6	102.8	101.1	101.9	100.6	98.0	101.4	101.5	99.0	95.6	98.2	96.9	96.0	92.9	91.1	93.0	91.8
Agriculture	77.9	80.9	84.0	87.9	91.2	95.6	97.6	97.9	104.5	110.5	113.2	109.6	110.8	120.5	125.3	133.5	142.1	140.4	145.0
Nonagricultural industries	111.3	108.1	105.7	104.5	102.2	102.6	100.9	98.1	101.0	100.5	97.5	94.1	96.8	94.3	92.8	88.5	85.6	87.9	86.1
Man-Hours																			
Total	107.0	104.1	102.5	102.0	100.0	101.5	100.7	97.6	101.8	103.3	101.5	97.7	101.3	100.4	99.9	96.7	94.9	98.2	97.7
Agriculture	78.4	80.5	83.4	88.0	90.1	95.9	97.3	97.6	105.1	113.8	119.1	117.0	120.5	129.4	136.0	143.4	154.8	155.8	161.8
Nonagricultural industries	110.5	107.0	104.9	103.7	101.2	102.2	101.1	97.5	101.4	102.0	99.4	95.3	98.9	96.9	95.5	91.0	87.6	91.1	89.9
Man-hour estimates based primarily on labor force data [3]																			
Output per Man-Hour																			
Total	123.1	120.2	116.5	113.0	107.4	104.6	103.4	99.4	97.2	94.6	94.7	90.8	88.4	84.5	82.1	78.5	71.9	70.2	67.9
Agriculture	144.0	134.3	132.9	121.6	119.5	110.3	104.6	103.1	93.3	87.8	84.3	83.8	79.7	70.5	65.0	65.1	57.0	59.0	50.7
Nonagricultural industries	119.9	117.6	114.1	111.4	105.8	103.8	103.1	99.1	97.7	95.8	96.7	92.8	90.3	87.6	85.6	82.4	76.7	74.4	72.9
Hours per Unit of Output																			
Total	81.2	83.2	85.8	88.5	93.1	95.6	96.7	100.6	102.8	105.7	105.6	110.1	113.1	118.4	121.9	127.3	139.1	142.4	147.3
Agriculture	69.4	74.5	75.2	82.2	83.7	90.6	95.6	97.0	107.1	113.9	118.6	119.3	125.5	141.8	153.9	153.6	175.6	169.5	197.1
Nonagricultural industries	83.4	85.1	87.6	89.8	94.5	96.3	97.0	100.9	102.3	104.3	103.4	107.8	110.7	114.2	116.9	121.4	130.5	134.4	137.1
Output																			
Total	134.1	126.9	120.6	116.0	108.7	106.7	104.1	97.3	98.6	97.2	95.4	87.9	89.1	84.8	82.8	77.9	70.6	70.8	67.6
Agriculture	112.6	107.7	110.6	106.8	107.2	105.8	101.9	100.5	98.1	100.5	101.0	98.6	96.6	91.8	88.9	93.7	88.9	91.8	82.1
Nonagricultural industries	135.2	127.9	121.1	116.5	108.7	106.7	104.2	97.1	98.6	97.0	95.1	87.4	88.7	84.5	82.4	77.0	69.6	69.7	66.8
Employment																			
Total	109.5	106.8	104.6	103.4	102.2	102.3	100.8	98.4	100.7	100.6	97.8	94.7	96.6	95.9	96.1	94.8	93.1	94.4	92.4
Agriculture	77.9	80.9	84.0	87.9	91.2	95.6	97.6	97.9	104.5	110.5	113.2	109.6	110.8	120.5	125.3	133.5	142.1	140.4	145.0
Nonagricultural industries	113.1	109.7	106.9	105.2	103.4	103.1	101.2	98.5	100.3	99.5	96.1	93.0	95.0	93.2	92.8	90.5	87.6	89.3	86.5
Man-Hours																			
Total	108.9	105.6	103.5	102.7	101.2	102.0	100.7	97.9	101.4	102.7	100.7	96.8	100.8	100.4	100.9	99.2	98.2	100.8	99.6
Agriculture	78.2	80.2	83.2	87.8	89.7	95.9	97.4	97.5	105.1	114.5	119.8	117.6	121.2	130.2	136.8	143.9	156.1	155.6	161.8
Nonagricultural industries	112.8	108.8	106.1	104.6	102.7	102.8	101.1	98.0	100.9	101.2	98.3	94.2	98.2	96.5	96.3	93.5	90.8	93.7	91.6

[1] Output refers to gross national product in 1958 dollars.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] The estimates based on establishment data are derived principally from employment and hours obtained from monthly payroll reports. The estimates based on labor force data use employment and hours from the monthly household survey of the labor force.

Table G–2. Year-to-Year Percent Change in Output [1] per Man-Hour and Related Data for the Total Private Economy, 1947–65

Item	1964–65 [2]	1963–64	1962–63	1961–62	1960–61	1959–60	1958–59	1957–58	1956–57	1955–56	1954–55	1953–54	1952–53	1951–52	1950–51	1949–50	1948–49	1947–48
Man-hour estimates based primarily on establishment data [3]																		
OUTPUT PER MAN-HOUR																		
Total	2.8	3.6	3.5	4.6	3.4	1.6	3.7	2.9	3.0	0.1	4.4	2.3	4.1	1.9	2.9	8.3	3.2	4.2
Agriculture	7.3	.9	9.2	2.0	7.9	5.3	1.7	10.4	5.7	4.1	.6	5.1	13.1	8.4	.2	13.8	−2.5	16.2
Nonagricultural industries	2.4	3.6	2.8	4.6	2.9	1.3	3.5	2.5	2.2	−.6	4.4	2.2	2.9	1.0	2.0	6.4	3.9	3.0
HOURS PER UNIT OF OUTPUT																		
Total	−2.7	−3.5	−3.3	−4.5	−3.3	−1.7	−3.6	−2.8	−2.9	−.1	−4.2	−2.3	−4.0	−1.9	−2.7	−7.7	−3.1	−4.0
Agriculture	−6.8	−.9	−8.5	−1.9	−7.3	−5.1	−1.6	−9.3	−5.4	−4.0	−.7	−4.8	−11.6	−7.8	0	−12.1	2.6	−13.9
Nonagricultural industries	−2.4	−3.3	−2.7	−4.4	−2.8	−1.2	−3.4	−2.3	−2.3	.7	−4.1	−2.2	−2.8	−1.0	−1.9	−6.1	−3.7	−2.9
OUTPUT																		
Total	5.7	5.2	4.0	6.8	1.9	2.5	7.0	−1.3	1.4	1.9	8.5	−1.3	5.0	2.5	6.3	10.3	−.3	4.9
Agriculture	4.5	−2.6	3.6	−.5	1.4	3.8	1.4	2.5	−2.4	−.5	2.5	2.0	5.3	3.3	−5.2	5.4	−3.2	11.8
Nonagricultural industries	5.7	5.6	4.0	7.1	1.9	2.4	7.3	−1.5	1.6	2.0	8.9	−1.5	5.0	2.5	7.0	10.6	−.1	4.4
EMPLOYMENT																		
Total	2.5	1.8	.7	1.7	−.8	1.3	2.6	−3.3	−.1	2.5	3.6	−2.6	1.4	.9	3.4	1.9	−2.1	1.3
Agriculture	−3.7	−3.7	−4.3	−3.7	−4.5	−2.1	−.3	−6.2	−5.5	−2.3	3.3	−1.1	−8.1	−3.8	−6.1	−6.1	1.2	−3.1
Nonagricultural industries	3.0	2.3	1.2	2.2	−.4	1.7	2.9	−3.0	.5	3.1	3.6	−2.8	2.7	1.6	4.9	3.3	−2.6	2.1
MAN-HOURS																		
Total	2.8	1.6	.6	2.0	−1.5	.9	3.2	−4.2	−1.5	1.8	3.9	−3.5	.8	.6	3.3	1.9	−3.3	.5
Agriculture	−2.6	−3.5	−5.2	−2.4	−6.0	−1.5	−.3	−7.1	−7.7	−4.4	1.8	−2.9	−6.9	−4.8	−5.2	−7.4	−.6	−3.7
Nonagricultural industries	3.3	2.1	1.2	2.4	−1.0	1.2	3.6	−3.8	−.6	2.7	4.3	−3.6	2.1	1.5	4.9	3.9	−3.8	1.4
Man-hour estimates based primarily on labor force data [3]																		
OUTPUT PER MAN-HOUR																		
Total	2.4	3.2	3.1	5.2	2.7	1.2	4.0	2.3	2.7	−.1	4.3	2.7	4.6	2.9	4.6	9.2	2.4	3.4
Agriculture	7.2	1.1	9.3	1.8	8.3	5.4	1.5	10.5	6.3	4.2	.6	5.1	13.0	8.5	−.2	14.2	−3.4	16.4
Nonagricultural industries	2.0	3.1	2.4	5.3	1.9	.7	4.0	1.4	2.0	−.9	4.2	2.8	3.1	2.3	3.9	7.4	3.1	2.1
HOURS PER UNIT OF OUTPUT																		
Total	−2.4	−3.0	−3.1	−4.9	−2.6	−1.1	−3.9	−2.1	−2.7	.1	−4.1	−2.7	−4.5	−2.9	−4.2	−8.5	−2.3	−3.3
Agriculture	−6.8	−.9	−8.5	−1.8	−7.6	−5.2	−1.4	−9.4	−6.0	−4.0	−.6	−4.9	−11.5	−7.9	.2	−12.5	3.6	−14.0
Nonagricultural industries	−2.0	−2.9	−2.4	−5.0	−1.9	−.7	−3.9	−1.4	−1.9	.9	−4.1	−2.6	−3.1	−2.3	−3.7	−7.0	−2.9	−2.0
OUTPUT																		
Total	5.7	5.2	4.0	6.8	1.9	2.5	7.0	−1.3	1.4	1.9	8.5	−1.3	5.0	2.5	6.3	10.3	−.3	4.9
Agriculture	4.5	−2.6	3.6	−.5	1.4	3.8	1.4	2.5	−2.4	−.5	2.5	2.0	5.3	3.3	−5.2	5.4	−3.2	11.8
Nonagricultural industries	5.7	5.6	4.0	7.1	1.9	2.4	7.3	−1.5	1.6	2.0	8.9	−1.5	5.0	2.5	7.0	10.6	−.1	4.4
EMPLOYMENT																		
Total	2.6	2.2	1.1	1.2	−.1	1.5	2.4	−2.3	.1	2.9	3.3	−2.0	.7	−.2	1.3	1.8	−1.4	2.2
Agriculture	−3.7	−3.7	−4.3	−3.7	−4.5	−2.1	−.3	−6.2	−5.5	−2.3	3.3	−1.1	−8.1	−3.8	−6.1	−6.1	1.2	−3.1
Nonagricultural industries	3.1	2.7	1.6	1.7	.3	1.8	2.7	−1.8	.8	3.6	3.3	−2.2	2.0	.4	2.6	3.3	−1.9	3.2
MAN-HOURS																		
Total	3.2	2.0	.8	1.5	−.8	1.3	2.9	−3.4	−1.3	2.0	4.0	−3.9	.4	−.5	1.7	1.0	−2.5	1.2
Agriculture	−2.5	−3.6	−5.3	−2.1	−6.4	−1.6	−.1	−7.3	−8.2	−4.4	1.9	−3.0	−6.9	−4.8	−5.0	−7.8	.3	−3.8
Nonagricultural industries	3.7	2.6	1.4	1.9	−.2	1.7	3.2	−2.9	−.3	3.0	4.3	−4.1	1.7	.3	3.0	2.9	−3.1	2.3

[1] Output refers to gross national product in 1958 dollars.
[2] Preliminary.
[3] See footnote 3, table G–1.

Table G–3. Gross National Product or Expenditure in Current and Constant Dollars, by Purchasing Sector, 1947–65

Year	Total gross national product	Personal consumption expenditures				Gross private domestic investment				Net exports of goods and services	Government purchases of goods and services				
		Total	Durable goods	Nondurable goods	Services	Total	Nonresidential	Residential structures	Change in business inventories		Total	Federal			State and local
												Total	National defense	Other	
	Billions of current dollars														
1947	231.3	160.7	20.4	90.5	49.8	34.0	23.4	11.1	−0.5	11.5	25.1	12.5	9.1	3.5	12.6
1948	257.6	173.6	22.7	96.2	54.7	46.0	26.9	14.4	4.7	6.4	31.6	16.5	10.7	5.8	15.0
1949	256.5	176.8	24.6	94.5	57.6	35.7	25.1	13.7	−3.1	6.1	37.8	20.1	13.3	6.8	17.7
1950	284.8	191.0	30.5	98.1	62.4	54.1	27.9	19.4	6.8	1.8	37.9	18.4	14.1	4.3	19.5
1951	328.4	206.3	29.6	108.8	67.9	59.3	31.8	17.2	10.3	3.7	59.1	37.7	33.6	4.1	21.5
1952	345.5	216.7	29.3	114.0	73.4	51.9	31.6	17.2	3.1	2.2	74.7	51.8	45.9	5.9	22.9
1953	364.6	230.0	33.2	116.8	79.9	52.6	34.2	18.0	.4	.4	81.6	57.0	48.7	8.4	24.6
1954	364.8	236.5	32.8	118.3	85.4	51.7	33.6	19.7	−1.5	1.8	74.8	47.4	41.2	6.2	27.4
1955	398.0	254.4	39.6	123.3	91.4	67.4	38.1	23.3	6.0	2.0	74.2	44.1	38.6	5.5	30.1
1956	419.2	266.7	38.9	129.3	98.5	70.0	43.7	21.6	4.7	4.0	78.6	45.6	40.3	5.3	33.0
1957	441.1	281.4	40.8	135.6	105.0	67.8	46.4	20.2	1.3	5.7	86.1	49.5	44.2	5.3	36.6
1958	447.3	290.1	37.9	140.2	112.0	60.9	41.6	20.8	−1.5	2.2	94.2	53.6	45.9	7.7	40.6
1959	483.6	311.2	44.3	146.6	120.3	75.3	45.1	25.5	4.8	.1	97.0	53.7	46.0	7.6	43.3
1960	503.8	325.2	45.3	151.3	128.7	74.8	48.4	22.8	3.6	4.1	99.6	52.5	44.9	8.6	46.1
1961	520.1	335.2	44.2	155.9	135.1	71.7	47.0	22.6	2.0	5.6	107.6	57.4	47.8	9.6	50.2
1962	560.3	355.1	49.5	162.6	143.0	83.0	51.7	25.3	6.0	5.1	117.1	63.4	51.6	11.8	53.7
1963	589.2	373.8	53.4	168.0	152.3	86.9	54.3	26.9	5.7	5.9	122.6	64.4	50.8	13.6	58.3
1964	628.7	398.9	58.7	177.5	162.6	92.9	60.5	27.5	4.8	8.6	128.4	65.3	49.9	15.4	63.1
1965 [1]	676.3	428.7	65.0	189.0	174.7	105.7	69.8	27.6	8.2	7.1	134.8	66.6	49.9	16.7	68.2
	Billions of constant dollars, 1958 prices														
1947	309.9	206.3	24.7	108.3	73.4	51.5	36.2	15.4	−.2	12.3	39.9	19.1	[2]	[2]	20.8
1948	323.7	210.8	26.3	108.7	75.8	60.4	38.0	17.9	4.6	6.1	46.3	23.7	[2]	[2]	22.7
1949	324.1	216.5	28.4	110.5	77.6	48.0	34.5	17.4	−3.9	6.4	53.3	27.6	[2]	[2]	25.7
1950	355.3	230.5	34.7	114.0	81.8	69.3	37.5	23.5	8.3	2.7	52.8	25	[2]	[2]	27.5
1951	383.4	232.8	31.5	116.5	84.8	70.0	39.6	19.5	10.9	5.3	75.4	47.	[2]	[2]	27.9
1952	395.1	239.4	30.8	120.8	87.8	60.5	38.3	18.9	3.3	3.0	92.1	63.8	[2]	[2]	28.4
1953	412.8	250.8	35.3	124.4	91.1	61.2	40.7	19.6	.9	1.1	99.8	70.0	[2]	[2]	29.7
1954	407.0	255.7	35.4	125.5	94.8	59.4	39.6	21.7	−2.0	3.0	88.9	56.8	[2]	[2]	32.1
1955	438.0	274.2	43.2	131.7	99.3	75.4	43.9	25.1	6.4	3.2	85.2	50.7	[2]	[2]	34.4
1956	446.1	281.4	41.0	136.2	104.1	74.3	47.3	22.2	4.8	5.0	85.3	49.7	[2]	[2]	35.6
1957	452.5	288.2	41.5	138.7	108.0	68.8	47.4	20.2	1.2	6.2	89.3	51.7	[2]	[2]	37.6
1958	447.3	290.1	37.9	140.2	112.0	60.9	41.6	20.8	−1.5	2.2	94.2	53.6	[2]	[2]	40.6
1959	475.9	307.3	43.7	146.9	116.8	73.6	44.1	24.7	4.8	.3	94.7	52.5	[2]	[2]	42.2
1960	487.8	316.2	44.9	149.7	121.6	72.4	47.1	21.9	3.5	4.3	94.9	51.4	[2]	[2]	43.5
1961	497.3	322.6	43.9	153.1	125.6	69.0	45.5	21.6	2.0	5.1	100.5	54.6	[2]	[2]	45.9
1962	530.0	338.6	49.2	158.4	131.1	79.4	49.7	23.8	6.0	4.5	107.5	60.0	[2]	[2]	47.5
1963	550.0	352.4	53.2	161.8	137.3	82.3	51.9	24.7	5.7	5.6	109.8	59.7	[2]	[2]	50.0
1964	577.6	372.1	58.5	169.4	144.2	86.3	57.1	24.6	4.6	8.5	110.7	57.8	[2]	[2]	52.8
1965 [1]	609.6	394.2	65.6	177.1	151.5	96.8	65.0	23.9	7.9	6.0	112.7	57.1	[2]	[2]	55.6

[1] Preliminary.
[2] Not available.

NOTE: GNP data by industry, which had been published in previous Manpower Reports, are not included in this report because revised data in 1958 dollars were not available at press time.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Office of Business Economics.

Table G–4. Government Purchases of Goods and Services, 1962–65 [1]

[Billions of dollars]

Level of government	Total	Government purchases of goods and services [2]					Compensation of employees of government enterprises
		Total	Purchases from private industry	Compensation of general government personnel			
				Total	Civilian	Military	
Total:							
1962	123.1	117.1	62.5	54.7	43.2	11.4	6.0
1963	129.1	122.6	64.4	58.2	46.7	11.6	6.6
1964	134.8	128.4	65.5	62.9	50.3	12.6	7.1
1965	[3]	134.8	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
Federal Government:							
1962	67.5	63.4	39.1	24.3	12.8	11.4	4.1
1963	68.8	64.4	39.1	25.3	13.7	11.6	4.4
1964	70.0	65.3	38.1	27.2	14.6	12.6	4.7
1965	[3]	66.6	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
Defense and atomic energy programs:							
1962	51.8	51.6	32.6	19.0	7.5	11.4	.3
1963	51.1	50.8	31.4	19.4	7.8	11.6	.2
1964	50.2	49.9	29.2	20.7	8.2	12.6	.3
1965	[3]	49.9	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
Nondefense and space programs:							
1962	15.6	11.8	6.5	5.3	5.3	----------	3.8
1963	17.7	13.6	7.7	5.9	5.9	----------	4.2
1964	19.8	15.4	8.9	6.4	6.4	----------	4.4
1965	[3]	16.7	[3]	[3]	[3]	----------	[3]
State and local government:							
1962	55.7	53.7	23.3	30.4	30.4	----------	1.9
1963	60.4	58.3	25.3	33.0	33.0	----------	2.2
1964	65.5	63.1	27.4	35.7	35.7	----------	2.4
1965	[3]	68.2	[3]	[3]	[3]	----------	[3]

[1] For comparability with data on government employment, compensation of government enterprise employees has been added to the total of government purchases of goods and services, as shown in the national income and product accounts. Data on other current operating expenditures of government enterprises are not available. Capital expenditures by these enterprises are included in government purchases of goods and services. Datafor 1965 are preliminary.

[2] As defined in the national income and product accounts.

[3] Not available.

SOURCE: Based on data from U.S. Department of Commerce, Office of Business Economics.

Table G–5. Work Stoppages Resulting From Labor-Management Disputes Involving Six or More Workers for at Least 1 Full Day or Shift, 1947–65

Year	Work stoppages beginning in year				Man-days idle during year (for all stoppages in effect)		
	Number of stoppages	Average duration [1] (calendar days)	Workers involved [2] (thousands)	Percent of total employed	Number (thousands)	Percent of estimated total working time	Per worker involved
1947	3,693	25.6	2,170	6.5	34,600	0.41	15.9
1948	3,419	21.8	1,960	5.5	34,100	.37	17.4
1949	3,606	22.5	3,030	9.0	50,500	.59	16.7
1950	4,843	19.2	2,410	6.9	38,800	.44	16.1
1951	4,737	17.4	2,220	5.5	22,900	.23	10.3
1952	5,117	19.6	3,540	8.8	59,100	.57	16.7
1953	5,091	20.3	2,400	5.6	28,300	.26	11.8
1954	3,468	22.5	1,530	3.7	22,600	.21	14.7
1955	4,320	18.5	2,650	6.2	28,200	.26	10.7
1956	3,825	18.9	1,900	4.3	33,100	.29	17.4
1957	3,673	19.2	1,390	3.1	16,500	.14	11.4
1958	3,694	19.7	2,060	4.8	23,900	.22	11.6
1959	3,708	24.6	1,880	4.3	69,000	.61	36.7
1960	3,333	23.4	1,320	3.0	19,100	.17	14.5
1961	3,367	23.7	1,450	3.2	16,300	.14	11.2
1962	3,614	24.6	1,230	2.7	18,600	.16	15.0
1963	3,362	23.0	941	2.0	16,100	.13	17.1
1964	3,655	22.9	1,640	3.4	22,900	.18	14.0
1965 [3]	3,860	[4]	1,480	2.9	23,100	.18	15.6

[1] Average duration figures relate to stoppages ending during the year and are simple averages, with each stoppage given equal weight regardless of its size.

[2] Workers are counted more than once if they were involved in more than one stoppage during the year.

[3] Preliminary.

[4] Not available at press time.

Table G–6. Nonfarm Placements by State Employment Security Agencies, by Major Occupation Group, 1964–65

[Thousands]

State	Total		Professional, technical, managerial		Clerical and sales		Service		Skilled		Semiskilled		Unskilled		Short-time [1]	
	1965	1964	1965	1964	1965	1964	1965	1964	1965	1964	1965	1964	1965	1964	1965	1964
Total	6,471	6,279	267	251	958	972	2,003	2,056	316	335	928	852	1,999	1,815	2,030	2,038
Alabama	121	119	2	2	18	18	37	39	7	6	20	17	37	36	34	37
Alaska	11	13	(2)	1	2	3	3	3	1	1	1	1	3	5	2	3
Arizona	102	101	2	2	15	14	42	45	6	7	14	14	23	19	26	28
Arkansas	120	115	1	1	15	14	35	34	6	6	19	18	45	43	44	44
California	630	701	14	15	123	151	223	241	27	30	67	67	177	197	221	282
Colorado	94	90	3	3	13	13	22	22	5	5	9	8	42	39	39	37
Connecticut	90	84	2	2	16	15	25	24	6	4	11	10	31	28	22	20
Delaware	7	7	(2)	(2)	1	1	2	2	(2)	(2)	1	1	3	3	1	1
District of Columbia	53	46	14	14	8	6	20	18	1	1	3	2	8	6	16	16
Florida	236	246	5	5	43	46	97	101	20	23	32	31	40	40	51	55
Georgia	163	158	2	2	19	20	51	50	10	10	33	28	49	49	29	26
Hawaii	11	12	1	(2)	3	4	2	3	1	1	1	1	4	3	1	1
Idaho	37	35	1	1	5	5	12	11	1	1	4	3	14	13	11	11
Illinois	210	192	5	6	33	30	49	48	9	10	29	26	85	72	56	51
Indiana	129	115	2	2	18	18	33	32	6	6	23	18	46	40	25	22
Iowa	95	84	2	2	14	16	16	18	3	4	11	10	49	35	39	29
Kansas	77	76	3	4	9	10	20	20	4	4	8	7	33	32	32	31
Kentucky	61	56	1	2	9	8	16	16	3	3	13	9	20	19	13	12
Louisiana	94	89	2	1	16	16	26	26	5	5	12	10	34	30	33	32
Maine	24	23	(2)	(2)	3	3	5	4	2	2	5	4	9	9	2	2
Maryland	89	89	3	3	16	16	28	29	4	5	10	9	29	27	15	15
Massachusetts	156	153	20	22	28	28	41	35	9	11	18	21	41	36	42	29
Michigan	223	192	3	3	41	39	37	38	8	10	39	38	96	64	76	53
Minnesota	111	87	2	2	16	16	19	17	4	4	18	14	52	35	35	25
Mississippi	104	101	3	3	11	10	33	35	6	5	24	20	28	28	22	25
Missouri	97	100	2	2	18	20	21	22	4	5	16	16	36	35	29	29
Montana	35	32	1	1	6	6	9	8	2	2	4	3	13	12	9	9
Nebraska	54	51	1	1	7	7	10	10	2	2	6	5	29	27	23	22
Nevada	30	30	(2)	(2)	5	4	14	14	1	2	2	2	8	8	11	12
New Hampshire	17	15	(2)	(2)	3	3	3	3	1	1	5	4	6	4	(2)	1
New Jersey	163	150	9	9	19	18	66	64	8	9	25	22	36	29	43	41
New Mexico	37	39	(2)	(2)	4	5	14	14	2	2	2	3	14	16	17	19
New York	823	826	96	85	91	91	364	389	26	27	97	99	147	136	350	363
North Carolina	126	130	2	2	17	17	32	34	9	11	35	34	32	33	17	16
North Dakota	29	28	4	3	4	5	7	7	1	1	2	2	11	11	9	9
Ohio	249	217	4	3	32	30	61	59	11	11	32	25	110	89	97	92
Oklahoma	182	171	11	10	16	16	50	50	7	7	16	16	83	74	107	102
Oregon	70	66	1	1	11	12	20	21	4	4	9	8	25	22	18	18
Pennsylvania	284	264	17	15	48	44	85	86	17	17	54	48	63	55	68	76
Puerto Rico	46	51	2	1	7	7	4	12	4	4	11	11	19	15	1	4
Rhode Island	28	28	(2)	(2)	6	6	6	6	1	1	6	6	8	8	5	5
South Carolina	77	70	1	1	8	8	26	26	4	5	18	14	20	17	13	14
South Dakota	21	22	1	1	2	3	5	6	1	1	2	2	10	10	9	10
Tennessee	124	114	2	2	17	17	36	35	7	6	32	27	32	28	21	22
Texas	549	535	9	8	78	75	181	180	32	35	79	73	170	163	203	202
Utah	33	37	2	2	8	8	8	9	2	2	3	3	11	13	9	11
Vermont	15	13	(2)	(2)	2	2	4	4	1	1	2	2	5	4	2	2
Virginia	116	109	2	2	17	16	41	39	6	6	20	17	31	29	25	23
Washington	94	82	3	2	16	16	20	18	5	4	13	9	38	32	33	32
West Virginia	28	29	1	1	5	6	8	11	1	2	6	3	8	8	6	8
Wisconsin	82	74	4	3	14	14	15	15	4	4	10	10	34	27	10	9
Wyoming	14	15	(2)	(2)	2	2	4	4	1	1	1	2	6	6	5	6

[1] Included in the occupations shown. These represent placements of 3 days or less and are confined mostly to service workers (domestics) and unskilled workers (casual labor).

[2] Less than 500.

Table G–7. Nonfarm Placements by State Employment Security Agencies for Manufacturing Industries and Younger and Older Age Groups, and Other Selected Employment Service Activities, 1964–65

[Thousands]

State	Nonfarm placements								Other selected employment service activities							
	Total		Manufacturing industries		Age group				Nonfarm jobs openings registered		Job applicants		Counseling interviews		Aptitude and proficiency tests	
					Under 22 years		45 years and over									
	1965	1964	1965	1964	1965	1964	1965	1964	1965	1964	1965	1964	1965	1964	1965	1964
Total	6,471	6,279	1,524	1,370	1,792	1,563	1,260	1,266	8,673	8,147	10,892	10,749	2,192	2,002	2,570	2,338
Alabama	121	119	30	22	40	36	18	18	157	149	170	145	17	18	50	40
Alaska	11	13	2	2	3	4	2	2	16	18	22	19	6	3	6	7
Arizona	103	101	11	10	27	23	17	17	130	123	135	130	15	21	22	24
Arkansas	120	115	31	27	38	36	21	21	130	125	183	151	31	28	42	35
California	630	701	115	110	223	223	114	142	958	984	1,615	1,561	213	193	258	240
Colorado	94	90	12	11	27	25	15	15	112	106	137	132	28	20	41	32
Connecticut	90	84	30	24	27	24	17	15	131	119	169	181	38	32	38	30
Delaware	7	7	2	3	1	1	1	1	14	11	18	19	9	7	8	8
District of Columbia	53	46	1	1	12	8	8	8	69	62	82	68	25	27	20	21
Florida	236	246	32	30	55	54	47	48	316	319	231	227	43	32	64	54
Georgia	163	158	43	39	41	36	21	22	210	198	210	191	33	32	55	44
Hawaii	11	12	2	2	5	4	1	1	23	19	40	39	5	5	7	7
Idaho	37	35	7	7	14	12	6	6	43	41	52	54	9	9	12	12
Illinois	210	192	70	62	54	45	35	33	290	259	388	381	102	84	101	93
Indiana	129	115	47	39	43	36	21	18	181	159	244	257	28	35	48	49
Iowa	95	84	20	18	31	28	15	16	118	102	112	106	18	19	37	37
Kansas	77	76	12	11	22	20	16	16	105	102	104	102	26	23	26	26
Kentucky	61	56	19	14	20	16	9	10	75	73	160	153	39	35	58	52
Louisiana	94	89	13	10	28	23	16	17	121	112	134	125	18	19	33	28
Maine	24	23	10	9	9	8	4	4	40	39	46	51	18	15	19	17
Maryland	89	89	25	24	24	19	17	18	112	106	157	155	37	28	31	28
Massachusetts	156	153	47	49	44	38	30	28	208	223	330	326	90	72	59	57
Michigan	223	192	73	61	62	52	41	33	279	242	482	565	82	63	90	91
Minnesota	111	87	35	28	45	28	20	18	148	117	202	182	32	23	70	58
Mississippi	104	101	33	27	34	29	14	15	135	127	154	140	43	40	57	44
Missouri	97	100	30	30	28	30	17	17	139	138	219	226	52	45	54	59
Montana	35	32	5	4	11	10	6	6	43	39	52	49	21	17	18	16
Nebraska	54	51	10	10	16	14	12	12	65	60	62	56	15	16	27	25
Nevada	30	30	1	1	6	5	8	8	38	38	49	47	9	7	9	9
New Hampshire	17	15	9	7	6	4	3	3	28	23	41	41	10	7	8	8
New Jersey	163	150	49	43	44	34	32	30	234	210	324	329	56	46	39	39
New Mexico	37	39	2	3	9	8	6	7	43	45	61	62	14	14	17	17
New York	823	826	176	169	139	129	238	242	1,109	1,056	854	926	238	237	179	156
North Carolina	126	130	45	45	40	37	16	16	200	178	240	250	35	39	78	70
North Dakota	29	28	2	2	11	11	4	4	39	37	36	38	5	6	11	12
Ohio	249	217	72	56	66	50	54	51	339	283	558	527	83	73	116	98
Oklahoma	182	171	20	17	36	31	49	46	205	192	157	139	42	36	44	36
Oregon	70	66	17	15	24	21	13	13	92	85	145	146	43	37	34	31
Pennsylvania	284	264	94	85	87	70	55	58	372	334	571	557	167	163	119	113
Puerto Rico	46	51	14	16	13	11	5	6	52	56	177	166	28	29	24	23
Rhode Island	28	28	13	13	10	10	6	6	42	39	46	53	14	14	11	13
South Carolina	77	70	25	20	23	19	12	11	105	93	115	111	18	16	41	35
South Dakota	21	22	2	2	7	6	4	5	31	31	31	30	8	6	12	9
Tennessee	124	114	41	34	36	31	17	16	159	141	156	146	30	23	60	64
Texas	549	535	86	76	119	105	114	115	659	630	719	692	139	125	189	154
Utah	33	37	5	6	10	10	6	6	41	44	65	55	19	15	28	29
Vermont	15	13	4	2	6	4	2	2	24	20	25	22	5	3	6	5
Virginia	116	109	25	22	35	27	17	15	167	160	145	145	39	42	51	45
Washington	94	82	19	14	28	22	17	16	131	109	191	195	41	38	57	52
West Virginia	28	29	4	5	11	8	5	6	35	34	86	78	20	23	16	17
Wisconsin	82	74	34	32	33	28	13	12	145	122	176	185	34	40	67	70
Wyoming	14	15	1	1	4	4	3	3	18	20	20	20	4	4	3	3

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